

**AN EXPLORATION OF THE REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN THE SOUTH
AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE OPERATIONS IN TSHWANE**

by

MARTHA MAPAKENG MATSEPE

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTERS TECHNOLOGIAE

in the subject

Policing

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF SA MABUDUSHA

January 2020

DECLARATION

I, Martha Mapakeng Matsepe (student number: 42972868) declare that the dissertation regarding **“AN EXPLORATION OF THE REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE OPERATIONS IN TSHWANE”** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the dissertation to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at the University of South Africa for another qualification or any other higher education institution.



MARTHA MAPAKENG MATSEPE

DATE: 27/01/2020

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I want to thank the Almighty God for providing me with the power and the following people for the support rendered in this study:

- My research supervisor (Prof SA Mabudusha) for her patience, care, and support in my study. This dissertation was not going to be possible without your time and guidance.
- The Divisional Commissioner for Human Resource Development (Dr General BM Zulu) for permitting me to interview members in the Tshwane Policing precinct.
- The SAPS Members from the following police stations: Atteridgeville, Pretoria Central, Pretoria West and Sunnyside for their time and information that they provided me with. I appreciate your effort of sharing your encounters with me.
- My friend and former colleague Peter Mafologela for keeping on motivating me throughout this dissertation.
- My colleagues who kept on encouraging me when it was getting tough.
- My husband (Mr HE Matsepe) for believing in me and always supporting and encouraging me.
- My sons Thabang and Tshegofatso Matsepe for always providing me with a cup of coffee and kept on saying “Mama, it will be okay”.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late father Lucas Morwamalaka Mashu and my late mother-in-law Stephinah Mpelegeng Matsepe who always encouraged me to fight for a better life. May your souls rest in eternal peace.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
DEDICATION	iii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	viii
ABSTRACT	ix
CHAPTER 1: GENERAL ORIENTATION.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 PROBLEM DESCRIPTION.....	2
1.3 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	5
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	6
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	6
1.6 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS.....	7
1.6.1 Police	7
1.6.2 Gender discrimination.....	7
1.6.3 Operational Policing.....	8
1.6.4 Gender Equity	8
1.6.5 Commissioned Officer	8
1.6.6 Non-Commissioned Officer.....	9
1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY	9
1.8 LAYOUT OF THE DISSERTATION	10
1.9 SUMMARY	10
CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	11
2.1 INTRODUCTION	11
2.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	11
2.3 TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLING.....	13
2.4 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION.....	15
2.4.1 Interviews.....	15
2.4.2 Document analysis	17
2.5 DATA ANALYSIS.....	18
2.6 METHODS TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY.....	19
2.6.1 Credibility.....	20
2.6.2 Transferability.....	20
2.6.3 Dependability.....	21
2.6.4 Confirmability.....	21
2.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	21
2.7.1 Respect for the dignity of persons.....	21
2.7.2 Non-maleficence	22

2.7.3 Beneficence.....	22
2.7.4 Justice.....	23
2.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	23
2.9 SUMMARY.....	24
CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW	25
3.1 INTRODUCTION	25
3.2 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW	25
3.2.1 Global perspective	25
3.2.2 South African perspective	35
3.2.3 Transformation in the SAPS.....	39
3.2.4 Achievements and the Significant Milestone reached by women in the SAPS	42
3.3 SOUTH AFRICAN LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK ON WOMEN IN POLICING	44
3.3.1 The South African Constitution, 1996	44
3.3.2 The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998	46
3.3.3 The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service.....	47
3.3.4 The Affirmative Action Policy	47
3.3.5 The Promotion of Employment Equity and the Elimination of Unfair Discrimination policy document	48
3.4 THE CHALLENGES FACED BY WOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING.....	49
3.4.1 Lack of acceptance by male officers	49
3.4.2 Gender discrimination.....	53
3.4.3 Sexual harassment	57
3.4.4 Organisational impediments.....	58
3.4.5 Recruitment barriers	61
3.4.6 Promotion barriers	62
3.4.7 Existing myths and perceptions about women in the SAPS	65
3.5 CURRENT REALITY IN THE SAPS	66
3.6 THE VALUE OF POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING.....	66
3.6.1 The use of powers by female police officials during arrest	67
3.6.2 Good communication skills	67
3.6.3 Increase in solving of criminal cases.....	70
3.6.4 Leadership styles	70
3.6.5 Improvement of police responses to crimes against women and children	71
3.7 SUMMARY.....	71
CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	73
4.1 INTRODUCTION	73
4.2 PERSONAL/BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS	73

4.3 REASONS FOR UNDER-REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING IN TSHWANE	77
4.3.1 Police culture.....	77
4.3.2 Recruitment process.....	78
4.3.3 Training at the police colleges	79
4.3.4 Hours performed in operational policing	80
4.3.5 Fear to die	81
4.3.6 Family issues.....	82
4.3.7 Low salary	83
4.4 THE VALUE OF POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING.....	83
4.4.1 Perform duties that males cannot perform	83
4.4.2 Communication skills	84
4.4.3 Patient.....	85
4.5 THE CHALLENGES FACING POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING IN THE COUNTRY	85
4.5.1 Uniform/Dress Code	86
4.5.2 Bulletproof vest	86
4.5.3 Lack of acceptance by male colleagues	87
4.5.4 Male colleagues refuse to take instructions from female colleagues	91
4.5.5 Male colleagues falling in love with junior policewomen	91
4.5.6 Lack of promotions for women in operational policing.....	92
4.5.7 Undermined by community	94
4.5.8 Gender discrimination.....	94
4.5.9 Attending crime scenes	95
4.5.10 Toilets.....	95
4.6 AN APPROACH TO ATTRACT AND SUSTAIN POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING IN THE COUNTRY	96
4.6.1 Promotions	96
4.6.2 Incentives/Compensation.....	97
4.6.3 Change the uniform and the make of the bulletproof vest	97
4.6.4 Recognise qualifications.....	97
4.6.5 Empower policewomen	98
4.6.6 Change the recruitment strategy	98
4.6.7 Fair treatment.....	98
4.6.8 Physical fitness at training colleges must change.....	98
4.7 STRATEGIES TO ATTRACT AND IMPROVE THE REPRESENTATION OF POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING	99
4.8 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	100
4.9 SUMMARY	107

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	108
5.1 INTRODUCTION	108
5.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	109
5.2.1 The findings on the targeted police stations are as follows:.....	110
5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS	111
5.4 CONCLUSION	116
LIST OF REFERENCES	118
APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE	129
APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET	131
APPENDIX C: SAPS ETHICAL CLEARANCE.....	134
APPENDIX D: UNISA ETHICAL CLEARANCE	135
APPENDIX E: TURNITIN CERTIFICATE.....	136
APPENDIX F: LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE	137

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBD	–	Central Business District
CSC	–	Client Service Centre
FCS	–	Child Protection unit
IAPW	–	Women’s Freedom League
LAPD	–	Los Angeles Police department
LFN	–	Laws of the Federation of Nigeria
LT. COLONEL	–	Lieutenant Colonel
NATJOC	–	National Joint Operational and Intelligence Commanding Structure
NIU	–	National International Unit
NPF	–	Nigeria Police Force
ORS	–	Operational Response Service
SAP	–	South African Police
SAPS	–	South African Police Service
WFL	–	Women’s Freedom League

ABSTRACT

It has been claimed that since the dawn of democracy, there have been remarkable strides which were made to deal with the inequalities and disparities of the previous years. Former South African Police was reformed into a formidable South African Police Service that recognises the importance of women in the police. However, the SAPS is still one of the male-dominated organisations in this country. The inclusion and the retaining of women within operational policing and in management as well as leadership positions is still not yet successful. This research aimed to explore the causes for underrepresentation of policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane. The aim of this study was attained by gathering information through literature review, interviews and document analysis. In this qualitative study, semi-structured one-on-one interviews were conducted with twenty policewomen from four different identified police stations in Tshwane. Each identified police station was represented by five participants who directly perform operational policing. The findings of this study show that the organisation is still very unbalanced with the scale favouring males in operational policing. It is therefore recommended that SAPS should empower women in operational policing with the appropriate knowledge, skills and competencies through providing opportunities for career development and growth to successfully realise the SAPS' dream of including and retaining women in operational policing, as well as in management and leadership positions and providing all women in the SAPS with the necessary support. The development and review of a regulatory framework and strategies that promote gender equality are also paramount.

Key concepts: Police; gender discrimination; operational policing; transformation; gender equity; commissioned officer; non-commissioned officer.

CHAPTER 1: GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Protecting and keeping individuals and their property safe have been primarily considered the accountability of males over decades because women were never perceived as capable of defending themselves or the people that they serve. Consequently, women's representation in the police was disregarded when maintaining law and order was introduced to be a method of protecting individuals and communities. As a result, policing became an exclusively male occupation during the middle ages (Bezuidenhout and Theron, 2000: 19).

In the past, women were marginalised as men held primary control and predominated in leadership roles, ethical power, social advantage, as well as control of property. The entrance of women in the police had also been opposed and their tasks were questioned, since they were regarded incompatible for policing job (Heidensohn, 1998: 217). As a result, the South African policewomen were also generally excluded from operational policing, for instance, executing patrols and investigative roles. These women were primarily allocated to carry out victim support, clerical and administrative duties. This was supported by Berg (1999: 288) that when women began to cross the threshold of police work in the nineteenth century, they were not allowed to involve themselves in what male police officers would call "real police work", which involved patrol work, investigation of different offences, and detention of suspects.

According to Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 260), *"Women were also forbidden to be the commanders of the stations or to be engaged in other commanding positions, where they would oversee men. Their roles were limited to administrative positions where they were commanding women only. Female officers have been also kept on a promotion structure different from that of their male colleagues, and this situation was only amended in 1990."*

However, since the inception of democracy, the SAPS was an organisation which needed a serious revolution as a result of its patriarchal system of operation during the era of apartheid. The new South African democracy is aimed at changing the lives of every inhabitant in South Africa, including women, to guarantee that discriminative policies against women that were created by the previous patriarchal society and system are addressed.

As such, much emphasis has been placed on the implementation of equality, including gender equity, the removal of discriminatory policies and the introduction of new policies that promote gender equity (Reynecke and Fourie, 2001: 264).

The purpose of changing the previous South African Police Force into a South African Police Service was to recognise the significance of women in policing. Now SAPS is involved in the transformation process to construct an environment which will permit women in the SAPS to comprehend their full potential, without worrying about discrimination and to redefine the rights and accountabilities of males and females in policing. Consequently, the presence of policewomen in operational policing remained the emphasis of substantial debate in connection with their representation. It has also unlocked deliberations regarding the gender differences in policing. These questions the experiences of women as the subjects of policing activities in operational policing.

The freedom and the rights of every individual in the society is the responsibility of the Bill of Rights which was introduced by the South African government in 1996. The latter also acknowledged discrimination of gender as a violation of human rights and therefore an offence. This unlocked the door for women to turn out to be included as integral parts in the SAPS career (Morrison, 2004). However, much more still needs to be done before the organisation accomplishes all its equity goals with regarding gender and truly become an equal society. Thus, the reasons for underrepresentation of South African policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane were explored by this study. In the following section, the problem description, the research aim and objectives, the research questions, key concepts, value of the research, are discussed.

1.2 PROBLEM DESCRIPTION

The SAPS Affirmative Action Policy was established on 27 June 1997 and provision is made for a 30% ratio of women in the positions of middle and senior management by the year 2000 and filled representivity of the body of officers of the law by the year 2005 (Reynecke and Fourie, 2001: 264).

According to the SAPS Annual Report (2015/2016: 34), SAPS organisational profile indicates some great improvements concerning women in high-ranking appointments in the SAPS. However, regardless of these improvements, there is still much to be done to ascertain enhanced existence of women in operational policing.

The annual report shows that non-commissioned policewomen made up only 25.84% and 74.15% non-commissioned policemen. The report further shows 32.57% commissioned policewomen and 67.42% policemen.

The total of all available women in the police service is demonstrated by the above annual report as not being sufficient to achieve the objective of full representation of women population as set out in the affirmative action policy.

Dantzker (1997: 26) argues that although some advancement has been made during 1980 and 1990 to incorporate women into policing, female officers are still underrepresented in police departments and are underrepresented in supervisory positions and much more work remains to fully incorporate women in policing. This view is supported by Martin (in Alpert, Dunham and Stroshine, 2006: 181) that growth in numbers of women officers and supervisors has been slow but stable nationwide in increasing their tasks into all aspects of policing. Nevertheless, the number of women continue to be considerably less in police work. Kim and Merlo (2010: 3) aver that even though the number of policewomen is escalating, they are positioned in the junior ranks of the police force in large number. Birzer and Roberson (2007: 254) report that women have continuously being underrepresented in supervisory and executive positions in law enforcement. Dantzker and Kubin (1998: 20) concur that high-ranking administrators and officers are persistently resisting the appointment of women in the departments of the police.

Dantzker (1997: 13) emphasises that if appointed, female police officers face several problems on the job. These include sexual and nonsexual harassment, not being accepted by male officers, and barriers to promotion. In addition, Dempsey and Forst (2012: 201) emphasise that sometimes female employees can be targets of sexual harassment. Morrison (2005: 27) asserts that even though harassment and discrimination are regarded as unjust labour practices, they continue to exist in the police.

Dantzker (1997: 13) accentuates that most male police officers are convinced that women are incompetent than men at handling violent situations and at performing patrol duties. Birzer and Roberson (2007: 252) assert that women are differentiated against in the police since the policing functions are alleged to be full of danger and violence that women cannot deal with.

This view is supported by Dempsey and Forst (2012: 190) that much discrimination against women in police departments is based on being doubted by their male counterparts that they cannot perform police job efficiently.

The study conducted by Bezuidenhout (2002: 117) about representation of policewomen in environments where males have more power and influence points out that even though women have demonstrated their proficiency in performing the majority of policing duties adequately, cynicism about them in the police service has continued unabatedly.

Bezuidenhout further pointed out that even though the work-related successes of policewomen are great like that of their male colleagues and even exceptional in some occasions, majority of policemen continue to adhere to the old-style perspective of resisting them in policing. Morrison (2005: 27) has shown that despite women's involvement in police work, which was previously dominated by males, decisions continue to be made mainly by men.

Birzer and Roberson (2007: 252) indicate unnecessary entry criteria as another contributing factor to underrepresentation of policewomen in the organisation. Many of these entry criteria test physical fitness, which give men a biological preference. As a result, a lot of female candidates are side-lined in the course of the process. According to Dempsey and Forst (2012: 202), many policewomen often avoid pursuing promotions for fear that others may perceive them as having obtained them owing to their gender and not their abilities. Some of them feel that promotions attract undesirable, negative consideration of male police officers, as a result of a stigma for other women who apply for promotions. Prenzler and Sinclair (2013: 4) argue that the recruitment, representation and advancement of female officers in the law enforcement agency of England and Wales has advanced considerably over the last ten years. The existence of female officers is more than even before, recruitment of females is powerful and the likelihoods of promotions for women officers are basically equivalent to their male colleagues. Moreover, trend data indicated that women were continuously moving up to the higher ranks, and South Africa was included as one of the countries with policewomen in highest ranks.

Law enforcement agencies globally are facing inequality with respect to the representation of gender in specific roles of the police (Robinson, 2013: 4). According to Irving (in Robinson 2013: 4), women are overrepresented in clerical roles and community policing but not well represented in specialised capacities such as serious offences, drug squad, highway patrol, tactical response and police divers.

The researcher is of the opinion that there still seems to be an underrepresentation of women in the operational policing. This underrepresentation of policewomen is clearly indicating that women are still struggling to succeed in a profession dominated by males. Blum, Fields & Goodman (1994: 257) concur that despite the laws that forbid discrimination in law enforcement agencies, discrimination and disproportionate representation of policewomen endure.

It appears that the imbalances and inequalities of the past are still present in current appointment of policewomen in SAPS, which negatively affect the achievement of gender representation in SAPS.

The main problem that was explored in this study was the non-existence of successful outcome in the full representation of the South African Policewomen in operational policing. This gender inequality in policing encouraged the researcher to conduct the research. This research intended to ascertain the current actual representation or position and rights concerning the participation of South African policewomen in operational policing.

1.3 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This research aims at exploring the reasons behind the underrepresentation of South African policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane. In order to do that, the following objectives are considered:

- to understand why policewomen are underrepresented in non-commissioned and commissioned positions in operational policing in Tshwane;
- to assess the importance of the South African policewomen in operational policing;
- to explore the challenges facing policewomen's participation in operational policing in the country;

- to identify an approach to attract and sustain policewomen in operational policing; and
- to suggest strategies to improve opportunities of employment for and representation of women in the SAPS.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following is the main research question of this research: Why are policewomen underrepresented in operational policing within Tshwane?

The sub-questions that follow are also resolved in support of the main research question in this study:

- What is the importance of the policewomen in operational policing?
- What are the challenges facing policewomen's participation in operational policing in the country?
- What can the organisation do to attract and sustain policewomen in operational policing in the country?
- Which strategies can improve employment opportunities for and the representation of South African policewomen in operational policing?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The researcher sought to investigate the influences that can be attributed to the underrepresentation of policewomen in operational policing in the Tshwane area. So far, the researcher has noticed that the majority of studies were conducted regarding female police officials in SA, but extremely less research has been carried out on the representation of policewomen in operational policing. For this reason, it is the aim of this study to close the loopholes concerning this information.

Several solutions that can assist other researchers by increasing knowledge on the representation of policewomen in operational policing from the beginning of democracy in SA, may be provided by the commendations that are drawn out of the findings made in this research.

This study sought to assist as a guide for the South African Police Service on how to enhance the strategies they use in the recruitment of women in operational policing along with the kind of support structures that is required by policewomen.

1.6 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

1.6.1 Police

The concept 'police' is referring to an employee of the SAPS who is employed to perform the responsibilities as stipulated in Section 205 of the Constitution of the Republic of SA, 1996 (South Africa, 1996). These responsibilities comprise crime prevention, crime combating, crime investigation, maintaining public order, protecting and securing of the citizens of the country as well as their belongings, enforcing and upholding the law and creating a safe and secure environment for all people in the country.

1.6.2 Gender discrimination

Webb and Tossel (in Reynecke and Fourie, 2001: 251) indicate that there are two types of discrimination: *Vertical discrimination* refers to discrimination contained by similar profession where women can be seen as constantly underrepresented in positions of seniority and management and disproportionately represented in the lower levels.

Conversely, *horizontal discrimination* refers to the discrimination through all professions. It also shows that women are generally over-represented in certain junior positions of the service-related jobs, while they are denied access to move to other occupations which are more significant or profitable.

Dempsey and Forst (2012: 181) define discrimination as treating individuals inadequately in personnel decisions based on their ethnic group, belief, citizenship, sexual category or sexuality.

In this research gender discrimination points out to the actions or policies that overlook the appointment or involvement of policewomen in other important activities of the police environment.

1.6.3 Operational Policing

This term refers to the service delivery functions executed by the enforcers of the law outside the Community Service Centre in a specific policing area and contribute directly to crime detection, crime prevention, or the maintenance of public order and safety and by so doing, they are generally collaborating with or visible to the community (Queensland Police Service, 2008: 44). In the SAPS operational duties begin in the CSC as the members who are posted in the CSC receive arrested persons, visits the cells hourly, feed the prisoners, etc. These prisoners are arrested for various cases which includes murder, robbery, etc. Operational policing is defined as the work practices and procedures of police engaged in operational duties from the street patrol officer to detective (Dean, 1995: 338).

1.6.4 Gender Equity

According to Roller (2013: 4), gender equity is the procedure of being unbiased to people who differ in gender and a way of reaching the objectives of gender equality. She further explains that gender equity means that the rights, responsibilities and opportunities of men and women do not depend on whether they are born male or female. She maintains that a community values the similarities and differences of men and women equally, when gender equality exists. Resources cannot be accessed fairly, and people will not get the opportunities that permit them to function as equals in a community, without equity.

1.6.5 Commissioned Officer

A commissioned officer is a police member who is of a rank from a rank of captain and above, Captain to National Commissioner (SAPS, 2017: 46). A commissioned officer means a commissioned officer appointed under section 33 (1) of the South African Police Act, 68 of 1995 (SAPS, 2010: 18). All commissioned officers wear their rank insignia and epaulettes on the lapels of the uniforms. According to Section 33 of the South African Police Service Act, 68 of 1995, the President may from time to time by commission appoint officers of the Service. A Deed of Commission, bearing the signatures of the President and the Minister, or an exact copy thereof, shall be proof of appointment of a commissioned officer.

1.6.6 Non-Commissioned Officer

A non-commissioned officer is a police member who is of a rank below that of a commissioned officer, Constable to Warrant Officer (SAPS, 2017: 46). These non-commissioned members wear their rank insignia (shoulder flashes) on the shoulder lapels of the uniforms (SAPS, 2010: 43). The non-commissioned officers are differentiated with the following: The shoulder flashes of a Constable on both upper arms are having a big Police badge with a symbol of an aloe. Aloe and SAPS are survivors which are able to operate effectively with very few resources. Both are to be found throughout South Africa, irrespective of whether the conditions are good, harsh or dry. Even though offenders may experience them to be hard and bitter, they have a healing effect on the community as a whole. The shoulder flashes of a Sergeant on both upper arms, have hexagon and three stripes. The sides and points of the hexagon symbolize the 6 cornerstones which are the essence of the nature of the Service that the SAPS must render. The shoulder flashes of a Warrant Officer on both upper arms, with a coat of arms inside. The coat of arms calls for the nation to unite in a common sense of belonging and national pride (SAPS, 2010: 8; 43 and 47).

1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

The researcher selected four police stations in Tshwane for the purpose of this study, namely, Atteridgeville, Pretoria Central, Pretoria West and Sunnyside. SAPS Atteridgeville is based in the location which is predominantly occupied by black population. It is in the urban area of Tshwane and there are also informal settlements which are served by police officials employed in this police station.

Pretoria Central and Pretoria West are in the CBD of Tshwane. They are occupied by different races such as Africans, Indians, Coloureds, Foreign Nationals, and Whites whereas Sunnyside is mostly full of Africans and an enormous number of foreigners.

Under-representation of policewomen in operational policing is problematic nationwide. The researcher chose the specific police stations to serve as samples to find out how women experience their participation in operational policing. An additional reason for selecting these police stations in Tshwane was to get hold of data from various cultures, comprising the culture of Africans, the culture of Whites, the Indian culture and the culture of the coloured people. The intention was to reach different dynamics of Gender Equality within those domains.

1.8 LAYOUT OF THE DISSERTATION

Chapter 1: General orientation

A clear background concerning the problem of the research is provided in this introductory chapter, including the research aim and objectives, significance and demarcation of the study.

Chapter 2: Research methodology

Here, the research methods implemented towards achieving the aim of this research are discussed.

Chapter 3: Literature review

This chapter provides a general reviewing of the writings that were published locally and globally as well as the laws relating to gender equality problem as researched by other authors especially within the police field.

Chapter 4: Presentation of research findings

The findings of this study are research are reflected in this chapter together with critical analysis and discussions of the field data. This chapter is aimed at creating a logic out of the information that was brought together during the research study.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations

This final chapter of the research report highlights the conclusions and recommendations which are made about this research.

1.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter the reader is introduced to the problem to be explored. It also covers the design of the research and the methodology used. The next chapter put emphasis on reviewing the existing literature related to the problem in the study and the relevant regulatory framework about the representation of policewomen in South Africa and other countries.

CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter directed its focus on the research methods which were adopted to reach the aim of this study and the techniques followed in this research to collect, gather, analyse and present data. These are presented under the following topics: Research design and methodology, Target population, Sample size. This chapter also presents ethical consideration and the problems that the researcher encountered during data collection process.

2.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

According to Mouton (1996: 107), a set of processes and directives that are employed when the research problem is addressed, is called a research design. According to Babbie (2010: 117), a research design includes a set of conclusions concerning the topic under study amongst a specific population with specific research methods for specific purpose. According to these given explanations, this strategy of inquiry concentrates upon ultimate result as well as all the phases within the procedure to achieve the anticipated result (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport, 2011: 143). It also functions as an aid to the researcher to expect what should be the proper research conclusions in order to take full advantage of validity of the evidential outcomes (Mouton, 1996: 107). Bezuidenhout (2011: 40) defines it as a strategy, a technique or an action plan, that serves as a supporting structure or the research guideline. Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole (2013: 131) add that a research design intends to assure high internal validity result. An exploratory strategy of inquiry has been utilised to make it possible for the researcher to collect data directly provided by individuals performing operational duties at the identified police stations in Tshwane. Exploratory research design stays essential wherever restricted information or skills concerning a specific topic are present and the research purpose is to increase a comprehensive insight about a circumstance, occurrence or society (Bless et al., 2013: 60). According to Babbie (2010: 92), studies meant for exploring something are most certainly carried out for the following reasons:

- To please the inquisitiveness and aspiration of the researcher for desirable insight;

- To check the probability of being responsible for of undertaking a more extensive study; and
- To develop the technique to be utilised in any subsequent research.

Bezuidenhout (2011: 40) defines methodology as the technique utilised by the scholar when gathering, accumulating and scrutinising information. This is also defined as the procedure that is utilised to bring data and information together for decision making purpose. According to Hill (in O'Reilly and Kiyimba, 2015: 22), methodology refers to the procedural guidelines that are designed to show way to researchers when exploring social and human behaviour. A qualitative research approach was adopted in this study. According to Creswell (2013: 65), a qualitative approach is suitable to be utilised in a study when the research problem need to be explored in that particular study or when the researcher require an in-depth understanding of the problem or seeks to understand the participants' background. Filstead (1970: 6) defines qualitative methodology as the approaches that permit the investigator to get direct information from the people with personal experience regarding the problem under investigation. The following are the benefits of qualitative methodology:

- The researcher is adjacent to the data.
- The researcher is capable to make a concrete review in case she omits any point.
- The data is sound, reliable and trusted.

During the implementation of qualitative methodological processes, validity issue is substantially reduced and anxiety upon the trustworthiness of the information is improved (Filstead, 1970: 6). This technique utilises lesser samples, from where findings produce an improved insight of the investigated phenomenon (Bless et al., 2013: 16). The shortcoming about this approach is that qualitative research consumes ample time and call for more comprehensibility of objectives for the duration of design stages. This approach also involves ambitious data gathering and analysis, which end up prolonged in reports that have no stable guiding principles (Creswell, 2013: 65).

This approach furnished the researcher with the chance to visit the selected police stations in Tshwane where the participants are attached to investigate the research problem from their point of view. This study is focused on determining of the participants' thoughts and feelings concerning the issue or phenomenon at hand.

The researcher met the participants face-to-face to find detailed information that will address the problem being investigated. Qualitative research further permitted the respondents to use their own words to tell their stories, without copying or repeating someone else's description.

2.3 TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Wiid and Diggines (2013: 186) refers to population as the entire group of individuals from whom data is desirable. According to Babbie and Mouton (2010: 174), a population is defined as the whole bunch of objects from where a limited but well-selected collection of participants is designated.

A sample includes units or a subsection of the population well-thought-out to be included in the research (De Vos, et al., 2011: 223). The goal is to discover accurate details regarding the sample that will reflect the population. In this study, the population included policewomen employed in operational policing in the Tshwane policing area. Bless et al., (2013: 163) refer to sampling as a process of selection whereby a reduced, representative fragment is nominated from the bigger group for the determination of the study. The following are two approaches utilised to select samples: The researcher may choose probability sampling as the foundation for choosing her sample from the population of the research, or she may use non-probability sampling. Furthermore, non-probability sampling does not apply the principle of selecting the sample randomly, unlike probability sampling that depends on the usage of random selection (Denscombe, 2010: 24).

This study identified four police stations which are situated in Gauteng province, in the policing area of Tshwane. These four police stations have been purposefully nominated because they do have female officers with the capability of sharing their experiences on the problem at hand. Commissioned and non-commissioned policewomen employed at the nominated to the police stations participated in this research. The researcher asked 20 research participants to take part in this research. 3 female police Lieutenant Colonels (Commissioned Officers), 2 female Captains (Commissioned Officers), 2 female Sergeants (Non-commissioned officers), and 13 female Constables (Non-commissioned officers) with more than eight years' experience of policing.

This study employed non-random sampling as not all the respondents did not have an equivalent opportunity of partaking part in it. Fox and Bayat (2013: 58) explain this type of sampling as a sampling method where elements of analysis in the population do not each have equivalent opportunity to be selected.

For cost containment measures, however, the selection of the sample includes a unit of practicality and established best practice instead of stringent adherence to the random sampling principles Denscombe (2010: 25). Owing to the time and restricted budget of the researcher, it was not possible to incorporate the total population in the research.

Therefore, it was proper for the researcher to apply the technique of non-probability sampling. This technique was employed as it is most appropriate, not so much difficult, and not costly and it can be implemented with no numerical complications of probability sample selection.

According to Babbie (2010: 192), the following are the four kinds of non-probability sampling: accidental, judgemental, snowball, and quota Babbie (2010) refer to accidental sampling as “convenience” or “haphazard” sampling technique that depends on the participants who are easier to obtain, e.g. approaching anyone you come across and utilise them in your research.

Bless et al., (2013: 172) aver that judgemental sampling method is also called purposive sampling technique which is based on the conclusion of the researcher concerning the elements of the available sample of the population suitable for the purpose of the study. Babbie (2010: 193) identifies snowballing as another type of non-probability sampling technique that others contemplate as a method of accidental sampling which is suitable during the time when the participants of an exceptional group are hard to find. After assessing all the above-mentioned non-probability sampling techniques, the researcher decided to employ judgemental sampling to be able to select commissioned and non-commissioned female police officers (with more than eight year experience) working in operational policing who would have the ability to afford solutions to the problem of her research.

2.4 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

Several researchers propose the following several strategies to be used during data collection: questionnaires, interview schedules or guides, documents, observation, observation guide, and voice recorder or video camera.

Interview is the first methods for data collection. The interview comprises straight subjective interaction with the participant who is requested to respond to questions related to the problem of the research (Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole, 2013: 193). Semi-structured interviews were formulated to achieve the purpose of this research. This form of enquiry instrument related to involvements, approaches and views and principles of the participants was utilised for all participants. The researcher has also adopted probing technique during interviews in order to obtain further expressive answers appropriate to the enquiries.

Regarding this fact, Terreblanche and Durrheim (2002: 281) assert that comprehensive data might come from probing and semi-structured interviews. The researcher collected some of the information from various sources such as the SAPS Intranet for the regulatory framework covering gender equality and women in the police, internet sites, journal articles, publications and additional sources that might be of assistance in affording the required information to the problem in the study. The following methods were utilised collect data in this study.

2.4.1 Interviews

The interview is a social relationship created between the researcher and the participant with the intention to interchange information (De Vos, et al., 2011: 342). According to O'Reilly and Kiyimba (2015: 80), generally, universal methods transcripts categorise the types of interview into the following: structured, semi-structured and unstructured.

Unstructured or semi-structured interviews are usually employed in qualitative studies. When the researcher is mainly concerned with the complexity or process, or when an issue is debateable or subjective, semi-structured interviews are specifically appropriate (De Vos et al., 2011: 351).

In this study, the researcher has adopted semi-structured one-to-one interview. According to Denscombe (2010: 176), the following are the advantages of one-to-one form of interview:

- It happens to be simple to organise and only diaries of two people need to correspond, namely, the researcher and the participant.
- The ideas and interpretations articulated throughout the interview originate from a single source: the person being interviewed. This makes it impartially straightforward for the researcher to be able to find precise concepts from specific individuals.
- It is quite simple to manage because only the researcher must grasp and cross-examine the ideas of a single as well as guiding just a single person through the interview agenda.
- When the researcher starts to transcribe the recorded interview, the transcription becomes far easier when the conversation implicates only a single person.

The semi-structured one-to-one interview technique provides the researcher and participant considerable flexibility and enables the researcher to follow-up specific exciting prospects that emerge during the interview (De Vos et al., 2011: 351). The semi-structured one-to-one method of interview was used by the researcher because it allowed the participant to be free in responding to questions and they could express themselves freely and able to give a broader picture. The researcher used interviews because she needed to gain perceptions hooked onto the objects, for example, persons' ideas, emotions, reactions as well as experiences.

In this study, the researcher adopted semi-structured one-to-one interview with the intention of gaining a thorough picture of the participants' beliefs, insights or accounts of the problem on hand. Through this adopted interview technique, the researcher had established pre-set questions on an interview schedule whereby the interview remained guided and not ordered around by the same questionnaire.

An interview schedule is a written inquiry form intended to guide interview (ibid). The guided interview is perfect to obtain comprehensive and comparable information.

2.4.2 Document analysis

De Vos et al., (2011: 377) outline document analysis as the study of contemporary documents to comprehend their essential content or to irradiate profound connotations that might be discovered through their elegance and exposure.

Most documents are, however, not written with a sight to research individual documentation such as, friendly letters, diaries, declarations, suicide notes as well as life stories or official documents such as minutes of meetings, agendas, newsletters, circulars etc. as well as mass media documentation, such as newspapers and magazines (ibid). They further assert that the data collection method of document study becomes effective provided these documentations are researched and analysed for the determination of scientific study. In this study, the SAPS official documents were analysed. These encompassed the annual reports of the organisation and SAPS magazines related to policewomen.

An elementary benefit of documentation study is the point that it is the one and only technique wherein there is no need for the researcher to contact the respondents personally. Another advantage is that even though the documentation study cost is affected by aspects like the distribution as well accessibility of documentation, the nature of documentation that is researched and the distance which must be covered so as to get the documentation, document study is rather extra reasonable (De Vos et al., 2011: 382). Most researchers will obtain access of reaching the sources relatively easy and cheap, depending on the nature of the documents (Denscombe, 2010: 232).

The disadvantages of document study are as follows:

- The frequent unfinished documents such as, reports, statistical records and historical documents are creating gaps that cannot be filled in any other way in the database.
- There are factors that can influence the quality of these documents to be objective, since they were not planned for research purposes, e.g. organisations' annual reports may be formulated to influence users in a positive way.
- Documents are simply not accessible in some fields of study, since records are certainly not reserved. In some instances, records are kept, but for security reasons they are not accessible. (De Vos et al., 2011: 381).

Literature was also reviewed to afford a national and international overview of the study. According to Bryman (2012: 98), literature review substantiates that the scholar can engage in intellectual evaluation based on the researcher's reading and understanding of the work of other scholars within the similar field.

Various sources were utilised by the researcher to obtain information on this research with the intention of understanding the explored problem and familiarising herself with the ideas of other scholars, guidelines and legislations regulating women in policing.

2.5 DATA ANALYSIS

According to Terreblanche and Durrheim (2006: 322), analysing data includes reading through your information over and over again and engaging in activities of breaking down the information (thematising and categorising) and structure it once more in narrative form (elaborating and interpreting). Analysing data is a demanding and an inventive method categorised by a close relationship between the researcher and the participants and the generated information (ibid). Analysing something has a purpose of gaining a better understanding of it. By in-depth scrutiny of the item that is being studied the aim is either:

- To define its essential components;
- To clarify how it operates; or
- To construe its meaning (Denscombe 2010: 235).

The researcher utilised the following eight steps proposed by Tesch's proposed when analysing data (Tesch, 1990: 142):

Step 1 – Cautiously read all the transcripts thoroughly and noted down the concepts that came to her mind.

Step 2 –Selected a single interview and attempted to find meaning of the information and wrote down the thoughts.

Step 3 – Created a list of the themes that emerged, organised similar themes into columns attached labels to the main themes, distinctive themes as well as the remains.

Step 4 – Abbreviate themes as codes and wrote the codes alongside the appropriate section of the text and then observed whether fresh categories or codes emerged.

Step 5 – Found the most explanatory phrasing for the themes and changed them into categories. The researcher also looked at decreasing the entire list of categories by clustering themes that correlate with each other and drew lines between categories to indicate that they are related to one another.

Step 6 – Made a closing judgement on the abbreviation for every category and organised codes alphabetically.

Step 7 – Grouped data materials belonging to each category in one place and performed preliminary analysis.

Step 8 – Recoded existing data where necessary.

The reason for the researcher to use Tech's data analysis method is that it afforded a comprehensive understanding of the research procedure.

2.6 METHODS TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

When measurements are contrasted and evaluated by social scientists, special attention is paid to the following two technical considerations: validity and reliability (Babbie, 2010: 150). Bless et al., (2013: 236) contend that the perceptions of validity and reliability are not appropriate for qualitative research. According to De Vos et al., (2011: 177), reliability emerges when a tool measures the similar things again and again and receive the similar outcome. Babbie (2010: 150) asserts that reliability is a matter of whether a specific technique, applied repeatedly to the similar object, produces the similar outcomes. An essential issue in social research is the reliability of measurements and the entire reliability does not make certain that "our measurements certainly measure what we think they measure". Validity alludes to the extent to which an empirical measure sufficiently reflects the actual meaning of the considered concept.

However, tension frequently transpires between the standards of validity and reliability, compelling a trade-off between the two (Babbie, 2010: 157). Lincoln and Guba (in Denscombe, 2010: 299) assert that it is impossible for researchers in qualitative studies to show beyond doubt in any perfect way that they "do it accurately". As a result, they decide on using the term 'credibility' in relation to the verification of research. This study used the following four alternative criteria as proposed by Bless et al. (2013: 236) to ensure trustworthiness:

2.6.1 Credibility

De Vos et al. (2011: 420) define the concept of credibility as the standby to measure if the research was conducted right, wherein the objective is to clearly show the existence of the conducted research in such a way as to make sure that the issue has been identified and described accurately. Bless et al. (2013: 236) assert that it corresponds with the perception of internal validity since it seeks to persuade that the findings portray the certainty of the reality under study or that they make sense. They further add that the researcher must persuasively demonstrate the rightness and general internal sense of the research questions, the study design, the data collection method and the approach to data analysis utilised. In order to substantiate other sources of information with the interview data on the researched topic, the researcher employed triangulation method in this study which comprises integrating numerous dissimilar methodologies to investigate the same phenomenon (Bless et al., 2013: 238) to show that the findings achieved are autonomous of the methodology used. The researcher in this study used a tape recorder during the interview sessions and made notes and repeated the questions to ensure the accuracy of obtaining data. Denscombe (2010: 297) argues that the credibility of research desires to be demonstrated as the essential components of the study itself. He further argues that the research needs to demonstrate that the findings are based on practices that are accepted to be the underlying support or foundation of good research in order to achieve credibility.

2.6.2 Transferability

Bless et al., (2013: 237) describe transferability as the extent to which results apply to same situations and can be compared to external validity.

The researcher is required to afford a comprehensive explanation of the situation wherein data was collected concerning herself as a person and concerning her relationship that she is having with the participants (Bless et al., 2013: 237).

The demographics of the participants of this research for example, the age, sex, rank, and years of service in the SAPS were described in depth and the researcher provided verbatim quotations from the interviews to enable others to deduce the applicability of the findings.

2.6.3 Dependability

Dependability urges the researcher to describe the research strategy thoroughly and exactly follows it clearly and considerately and indicate that every step was concluded comprehensively and cautiously (ibid).

The researcher has fully described the methodology, characteristics of the sample, process followed to collect and analyse data. Peer review and data quality checks also formed part of the process.

2.6.4 Confirmability

Confirmability, which is like replicability, necessitates that other researchers or observers be in a position to reach the same findings by ensuing the same research process under the same circumstances. It also anticipated the researcher to present a critical assessment of the methodology that was utilised (Bless et al., 2013: 236). This issue of objectivity involves the degree to which qualitative study can generate findings that are not influenced by the researcher who conducted the research. In this research, the researcher approached the analysing of data with an open mind. She undertook measures to avoid being biased, such as 'bracketing' her own preceding knowledge of the topic under the study and not lead the research participants to the responses.

2.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research ethics stress the importance of compassionate and careful handling of research participants, who may be engaged in changeable degrees of danger by research processes (Bless et al., 2013: 28).

The researcher used the following four ethical principles identified by (Terreblanche and Durrheim, 2006: 67-68) to make certain that her research was ethically conducted:

2.7.1 Respect for the dignity of persons

This concept is expressed in the majority needs for agreement to participate in a research by all study participants. Another significant functioning utterance of this concept is the protection of individual and institutional confidentiality.

To ensure the protection of the research participants' dignity, privacy and confidentiality in this study, the researcher left out the personal particulars of the research participants on the interview guide and used pseudonyms whereby the research participant's real names were not used and instead quote numbers such as Participant 1 or Participant 2 were used. The study participants were also allowed to pull out their involvement in the research at any time and without giving an explanation for their discontinuation in case they want to do so. The research participants were informed about who (for example, was the researcher and the research supervisor in this research) and how will the data be secured.

For this study, the research data was stored in a computer and secured with a password. Finally, every research participant was provided with cellular phone numbers and email address of the researcher for in case the participants need further clarity on some issues regarding the research study or in case they want to retrieve the end report of this research.

2.7.2 Non-maleficence

This concept needs the researcher to guarantee that no harm is inflicted on the study participants as a direct or indirect outcome of the study. If a specific research process generates disagreeable influences aimed at participants, the researcher ought to have the strongest scientific justifications for performing it (Bless et al., 2013: 29).

2.7.3 Beneficence

Beneficence compels the investigator to try to make the advantages as great as possible that the exploration will offer to the study participants.

The researcher and ethics committee must contemplate the comparative threats of a research contrary to any benefits that the research must convey straight to participants or to society with skills acquired. This principle needs social and behavioural scientists to engage in research that is constructive and considerable in encouraging the well-being of individuals (ibid).

2.7.4 Justice

Justice in general requires that the researcher deals with research participants impartially and equitably during all stages of research.

Therefore, this principle is applicable to the impartial process of choosing research participants, necessitates that those who stand to receive an advantage from the study should tolerate the burdens of the study, and the other way around.

It also necessitates that the researcher has some responsibility of providing care and support for participants who may become distraught or harmed by the research. The researcher treated all the participants equally and did not discriminate them on any other distinctive (Bless et al., 2013: 30).

2.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

A total of 20 study participants were asked to contribute in this study. Each police station was supposed to be represented by 5 policewomen from each station, e.g. 2 commissioned policewomen and two non-commissioned policewomen which was going to be a total of 8 commissioned officers and 12 non-commissioned officers with more than eight years' experience of policing.

The fact that the proportion of policewomen employed in operational policing is low in Tshwane made the required number of Commissioned policewomen participants not to be met.

For this reason, the researcher had to interview the following participants: Only five commissioned policewomen in SAPS Atteridgeville, one lieutenant colonel and one sergeant and three constables, in SAPS Pretoria Central only one lieutenant colonel and four constables, in SAPS Pretoria West zero commissioned officer, three sergeant and two constables and in Sunnyside the required number was reached, one lieutenant colonel and one Captain and three constables.

The nature of operational policing made it impossible for the researcher to get the research participants at one place at the same time. These members are always on the move attending to complaints and the ones in the Client Service Centres are always busy with incoming complaints. As a result, the researcher had to plan to go and interview those members at night during their night shifts.

2.9 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research approaches that were adopted to reach the purpose of this research and the data collection techniques followed in this study to gather, analyse and present data. This chapter also presents ethical consideration and the problems that the researcher encountered during data collection process.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The written works of the local and international publications and legislation on policewomen working in the operational fields as researched by other authors especially within the policing field was reviewed in this chapter. Chapter 1 provided a clear orientation for the problem of the study, including the aim and objectives of the research. Chapter 2 provided the research approaches that were adopted in this research. Several areas of significance to this research are discussed in this chapter, with the intention of providing a rich understanding of the topic at hand.

3.2 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

3.2.1 Global perspective

Historically, it appears that women have been employed into the policing field for reasons other than serving in the operational policing tasks. Bezuidenhout (2002: 110) argues that women who have been employed in the police service overseas in the course of the late 19th century were designated as “policewomen”, “matrons”, “prison matrons” or “police officials”. Archbold and Schulz (2012: 695) assert that most of the first women have been employed to look after women and children who were in police detention. Garcia (2003: 335) concurs that women came into the police as custodial matrons, depending on their motherly and female attributes. Natarajan (2008: 7) also concurs that in almost all countries, early women who entered the police force, were hired to deal with women and children and they were later assigned to non-dangerous tasks such as shoplifting and cases of juveniles who were in conflict with the law, but still not to patrol or investigation duties. Dempsey and Forst (2012: 181) assert that these policewomen were assigned only administrative tasks and tasks that dealt with youngsters or women convicts. They were not permitted to carry out similar patrol tasks as males. Furthermore, Dempsey and Forst (2012: 182) add that women were not included to performing regular police work because it was assumed that they were unable to perform similar type of patrol work as men owing to their gender and typical size.

Dantzker (1997: 1) posits that female officers' focus on the protection of children and women fitted the stereotypic view of women as more cherishing and sympathetic than men. In the past, female officers were employed in policing to fulfil stereotypically female duties such as looking after juveniles and women prisoners and safeguarding young girls from social evils, such as dance halls, liquor sales, and gambling, based on the ground that women signify distinctive, feminal skills (Rabe-Hemp, 2009: 115).

Prenzler and Hayes (2000: 21) assert that these women were entirely not included in the 'New Police' and its variations in countries like Australia. He further asserts that women were permitted a mainstream of policing only in the core restricted roles and figures, for much of the Twentieth Century. Dantzker (1997: 1) supports that from the origination, the criminal justice system and the public believed that women were not suitable to investigate horrible crimes and to handle fights between physically stronger citizens. Belknap and Shelley (1992: 47) assert that handling of suspects, particularly male suspects, has resulted in policing being one of the most resilient occupations to accepting policewomen in operational policing. Dick and Jankowicz (2001: 181) concur that women were more regularly deployed to non-violent cases that were not exposing them to any danger than men. Dantzker (1997: 1) argues that most women who wanted to be police officers did not challenge this opinion; instead, they argued that their exceptional feminine traits such as compassion, morality and negotiation skills made them well-suited to handle less serious crimes such as juvenile in conflict with the law, prostitution, gambling, domestic violence, and victims of rape. The majority of men in policing did not see these crimes as "serious" criminal activities. Archbold and Schulz (2012: 695) assert that these women did not have an aspiration to be allocated similar tasks as those of policemen. In addition, Appier (1998: 3) emphasises that these policewomen regarded men as being the most desirable type at executing certain police duties and vice versa.

Dantzker (1997) argues that women's organisations in the United States and in Great Britain suggested that female officers would be experts for tasks that males did not see as actual policing. This was supported by (Garcia 2003: 333) that when female officers performed duties considered to be "untrue police work," like overseeing convicted youngsters and administrative duties, their role was not to replace males but to assist them.

Schulz (1995: 20) concurs that protective functions of officers conducting patrols were kept for the prevailing aggressive males, while policewomen were mainly permitted to work in non-violent and non-dangerous roles, such as counsellors. Berg (1999: 288) supports that women were mainly assigned roles like typing, handing out firearm licences as well as compiling the medical boards. Bell (1982: 112) concurs that women have performed similar, but not the similar functions like those performed by their male colleagues in some police departments in the United States.

Dempsey and Forst (2012: 181) argue that to avoid trappings of male officers, these women did not view their male core workers as their equals in the level of service, education, or skills and they also isolated themselves from them.

Even though females were employed to execute duties in the police other than regular police work in the beginning of 1900s, only a few of them were starting to move into the police working environment where males have power and influence (Wells and Alt, 2005: 3). Garcia (2003: 333) accentuates that Portland, Oregon police department, employed the first woman (Lola Baldwin) in policing in 1905 as a safety worker and also authorised to effect arrests. Wells and Alt (2005: 3) argue that Baldwin carried on functioning after the enlightenment on the investigation of sexual offences concerning young women (what she called her “police cases”) with no income. Schulz (1995) asserts that Baldwin was permitted to deal with social conditions intimidating the legal rights to the safety of women and young girls. Archbold and Schulz (2012: 695) concur that Baldwin represented policewomen by being assigned, without police uniform, always in her own clothes, to places where males and females gathered and where it was believed that the drinking of liquor and immoral behaviour may transpire. Garcia also asserts that Alice Stebbin Wells was employed by the Los Angeles Police Department as the initial under oath policewomen in 1910. Furthermore, Appier (1998: 10) avers that Stebbin Wells’ job was to handle all the females in custody and that of children suspects’ cases and to investigate the societal disorders allegedly to be the contributing factors to lead some women and children to commit offences. Natarajan (2008: 23) asserts that the first policewomen were appointed in Los Angeles specifically to protect women and children. Lunneborg (1989: 4) argues that although Stebbin Wells was appointed as a police officer, she spent more time away from Los Angeles hammering up back-up for the appointment of women officers all over the country.

Miller (1999: 76-77) asserts that Stebbin Wells conveyed speeches around the country about women in policing, arguing that they could help men by taking care of women in custody, therefore restoring confidence in audiences that women would not replace men.

Schulz (1995: 21) argues that there were other women who had worked as police officials before the appointment of Wells. For example, Mary Owens was appointed by the Chicago Police Department in 1893 with the power of arrest. Schulz further adds that Owens was provided the designation and salary earned by a policeman and not of a policewoman, and that was rare.

Corsianos (2009: 13) argues that the first Canadian woman to officially embrace the title of “police matron” was Mrs Whiddon, as she was referred to, with Toronto police in 1887. These policewomen were initially employed to be in charge of women prisoners and women and children detainees. Walker (1993: 1) asserts that entry of women in policing in Canada also dates from 1910 and they were elected on dissimilar criteria to men and confined to work within women, children and typists. Corsianos (2009: 13) asserts that Canadian women did not serve as policewomen until the 1910s. The first women to serve in this capacity were Lurancy Harris and Minnie Miller in Vancouver British Columbia’s detective department at the rank of Fourth-Class Constable in 1912. These women were actively involved in patrolling dance halls, parks, beaches, cabarets, and any areas of amusement where women might get into trouble.

The notion of regarding police work is a “job for males” has overwhelmed policewomen (Appier, 1998: 1). The first policewomen were appointed on a probationary basis to evade humiliation triggered by males’ conduct towards female offenders (Brown and Heidensohn, 2000: 450). Price (1996: 1) reports that women police officers were neither authorised to be promoted except within their own special women’s unit nor were they allowed to apply for the similar promotion posts as men. Price (1996) further states that women could only be promoted in their own units because they were told by their police superiors that they do not have the enough experience to execute general street patrols. Garcia (2003: 334) accentuates that the presence of policewomen was viewed as a trend that would die quickly. She further maintains that with the existence of this prevailing attitude, policewomen have had to prove their capability and value within the organisation. Garcia (2003) asserts that it was just not possible for a woman to be accepted in policing.

The position of women in the police started to transform because of the influence of the legalised rulings. However, in several cities across the United States, women in policing had to introduce legal proceedings in order to be advanced to senior ranks or allocated patrol duties (Gosset and Williams, 1998: 55). Dantzker (1997: 2) reports that in the early 1900s, feminists in Britain formed the Women's Freedom League (WFL).

This organisation focused on fighting for the rights of women and protecting them from the cruelty and mistreatment of men. The WFL demanded female police officers to fight male violence against women and fought for women's rights to equal status. Other women's organisations, however, were comfortable to establish a place in policing for women through the cooperation of men and to limit women's roles to responsibilities that did not threaten men such as the more conservative roles (Dantzker, 1997).

Alice Stebbin Wells instituted the International Association of Women Police (IAWP), a team that petitioned to cover large areas in the United States and Canada for the enrolment of policewomen and became its first president in 1915 (Archbold and Schulz, 2012: 695). The IAWP provided an official position for policewomen and encouraged a separate (but not equal) status for policewomen. Women were to perform duties that facilitated the safeguarding of women and children and the prevention of crime. Appier (1998: 2) asserts that they had a hope that by equipping women with police authority, they could minimise the vulnerability of women and girls to perceived dangers of premarital sex and sexual exploitation. Dantzker (1997: 2) confirms that in conforming to the crime prevention model, policewomen performed specialized duties such as patrolling railroad depots for runaway and kidnapped children, patrolling in ordinary clothes to stop prostitution, returning runaway girls to their homes, conducting interviews with rape victims, and conducting investigations in crimes involving women and children.

According to Garcia (2003: 332), the work of policeman was described as one of law enforcement within the policing force, while the work of the policewoman was to prevent crime through ethical guidance. Miller (1999: 77) asserts that preventing crime was confidently recognised as women's field and this function was underestimated as one of the services of maintaining order that was not to be performed or valued by male officers. Dantzker (1997) postulates that the early policewomen won some acceptance from men by expressing that they were different from them.

He further states that dissimilar stance allowed gender stereotypes to remain untouched and gave a justification for the men's perspective that women's work was not worth as much as men's work. Women earned smaller salaries than men and were required to have more qualifications than men, whereas men were not required to have any educational requirements. Schulz (1995: 3) asserts that not even a high school diploma was required from the male police officers in some departments.

Bezuidenhout (2002: 110) asserts that even though these women were at many times more well informed and qualified than men, they were not allowed to be dressed in police uniform, not carrying firearms and were paid low wages than that of policemen. Apart from lesser pay, police departments did not allow women to be promoted irrespective of their capability or experience (Schulz, 1995: 3).

Dantkzer (1997) reports that the unequal pay and lack of promotional opportunities provided women with the rationale to question the substandard specialist status they had acquired. Legal changes also provided women officers with additional ammunition to request opportunities for equal appointment practices, tasks and promotions.

Appier (1998: 1) reports that until 1970, law enforcement agencies rigorously limited policewomen's range of obligations and chances for promotions. Gosset and Williams (1998: 56) assert that discrimination against women in police organisations was forbidden and weight requirements and minimum height that existed as obstacles for women were forbidden. Bell (1982: 114) also asserts that with the emphasis of the women's liberation movement and equal rights in the 1960s, women demanded equal employment opportunity in the police occupation. Gosset and Williams (1998: 58) state that when women were eventually accepted to patrolling duties, a lot of law enforcement agencies did not have uniforms manufactured for them. They either wore civilian clothes or a policeman's uniform shirt and a plain skirt. Gosset and Williams (1998) further maintain that the Portland (Oregon) Police Department hired Lola Baldwin to execute patrols in her own clothing and not in police uniform. Appier (1998: 1) asserts that there were no uniforms manufactured specifically for women until the late 1980s.

The Los Angeles Police Department, for example, discriminated against women (Dantzker, 1997). This was supported by Felkenes, Peretz and Schroedel (1993: 33) that in January 1971, Chief Davis enlightened approximately 100 policewomen that were no longer wanted or needed by the LAPD.

Then Chief Davis went on to assert that, “women didn’t belong in the police, could not perform the job, and that men did not need them there”. This was supported by Walker (in Felkenes et al., 1993:33) who openly repelled equal employment opportunity and questioned the capabilities of women concerning police work.

Felkenes et al. (1993: 33) further state later in January 1971, Chief Davis introduced a new restructured structure for the department of police, called the Jacob’s Ladder plan, which barred the promotions of policewomen from above the sergeant or investigator II rank. The department did not hire any new female officers between 1970 and 1973 and approximately 200 women, who were already assigned as sworn officers, were reallocated to receptionist and secretarial jobs without having their formal job classification altered. Their roles continued to be confined to working with children and women and working in support roles such as clerical work (Corsianos, 2009: 19).

According to Archbold and Schulz (2012: 696), as the number of women increased, so did their duties. They turned out to be more engaged in police work and not social work services or protective work. They were also given firearms and anticipated to be armed with them (previously it was unusual for women to have firearms in their possession). Archbold and Schulz (2012) further maintain that even though numerous employments of women were continuously gender-typed since they were apprehension-oriented rather than service oriented, later policewomen utilised them as a wedge to enter patrol. Women have fought for their place in policing and continue to struggle for equality. They could show that they had did dangerous work successfully and were, therefore, proficient of operational policing.

Women were not only rejected within the police force, but they also had unbalanced and unaccommodating requirements, such as being masculine and feminine concurrently as well as being held accountable for and allowed to be sexually harassed (Garcia, 2003: 330). Bell (1982: 112) reports that women in policing have been utilised as matrons from their entry into the occupation until the present time. They have been humiliated rather than accepted as equal members in police organisations.

Women were often confined to certain duties, when considering the responsibilities associated with operational policing. This history of exclusion and discrimination justifies the significance of the topic of female officers, and it illustrates that women face unnecessary obstacles in their police career, and these obstacles have also moulded the very nature of policing.

According to Ehiemua (2014: 19), in the past, a limiting condition on the enlistment of policewomen existed in Nigeria. Muhammad, Abdullahi and Lawal (2016: 260) maintain that the process of evolution of the Nigerian Police Force (NPF) did not record any female presence. Amos (2016: 42) asserts that the inception of women in the police force began in 1955, therefore coming longer after the force was inaugurated in 1930.

Aremu (2006: 737) affirms that in Nigeria, the idea of recruiting women into the police was first introduced in 1940's by some women leaders. Omotayo, Oladele and Adenike (2013: 53) and Muhammad et al., (2016: 27) assert that a designation of social and political section of women's party encouraged the female constables' recruitment into the NPF in 1944. This suggested that "women between forty and fifty years of age be hired to prevent prostitution better and handle women offenders" than men. This request was initially listed before the National Commissioner of the police responsible for the Nigerian Police during that time.

The Commissioner opposed the request expressing that the opinion that policewomen between 40 and 50 years old would be incapable to do the duties suggested by Women's Party representative as he regarded it "too dangerous to assign policewomen to with a duty of handling gangsters in Lagos. He was also not persuaded that policewomen would be competent to deal with the escalating crowd of sex workers.

While there was initially an impediment by the then Police Commissioner of the NPF, however, 10 years later, the initial policewomen passed out from the police college (Omotayo et al., 2013:53). Furthermore, Muhammad et al. (2016: 27) and Aremu (2006: 737) assert that in 1955 women were recruited into the NPF for the first time and the first batch of 20 policewomen passed out from training early 1956.

Muhammad et al., (2016) argue that at this immature stage, their duties and functions were limited and restricted to specific areas well-suited with their gender and exceptionally differentiated from the seemingly more masculine and challenging roles of their male counterparts. This limiting enclosure encapsulated among other such duties affecting women and children, the aged and infirm crowd control, telephone operation, clerical, and secretarial duties etc. Ehiemua (2014: 18) contends that after introduction of policewomen into the organisation, their primary responsibility was to respond to the society' demands of the society and to deal with offences committed by females or offences against children and women.

Pursuant to Section 121 of the Nigeria Police Act 23 of 1979 and Regulation of Cap 359 Laws of Federation of Nigeria 1990, it provides that, women police officers shall as a rule be restricted in the following functions, concerning women and children, and shall specifically be employed in the following duties:

- Investigating and recording rape cases against females and youngsters;
- Obtaining of statements from accused persons, witnesses and youngsters;
- Attending interviews of females or youngsters by male police officers;
- Searching, escorting, as well as safeguarding of women detainees to and from police station;
- Conducting road-crossing functions at schools; and
- Controlling crowd, where females and youngsters are in large number.

Section 122 of the Nigeria Police Act 23 of 1979 and Regulation Cap 359 LFN 1990 also prescribe such additional duties that woman police officers must perform when relieving male police officers in any of these duties:

- Administrative duties;
- Telephone etiquettes; and
- Officer's orderly duties.

Amos (2016: 44) asserts that apparently these duties were performed by women for the mere fact that women police officers were viewed as not capable of handling situations involving more physical and intellectual abilities, the job that involves emotional aspect was always allocated to women, where crimes such as robbery, burglary and accident scenes were allocated to men. Muhammad et al., (2016) assert that in the NPF, women are discriminated against in assigning roles and obligations such as guarding, patrolling, handling of firearms in crime control, and prevention. Moreover, the assignments of roles and duties were given only on uncommon occasions to women mobile police to handle firearms and women are low in number than their male colleagues. Ehiemua (2014: 19) posits that the work of policewomen is considered as being only marginal and not important. Actually, most policewomen responsibilities are those that their male counterparts are cannot perform, searching of female suspects, accompanying sexually assaulted female victims to hospital and writing down a statement. Police components which disregards principles of the existence of policewomen often overlook these responsibilities upon policewomen.

Amos (2016: 44) argues that Nigeria policewomen just like other segments of the society are faced with discrimination and suffer inequality as at previous years. Muhammad et al., (2016: 32) assert that there is a solid evidence of resentment towards the notion of policewomen in NPF.

Section 124 of the Nigeria Police Act 23 of 1979 stipulates that, a woman police officer who wishes to get married must first write to the Commissioner of Police for the State Police Command in which she is serving, and ask for permission to marry and provide the name, place of residence, and job of the person that she intends to marry. If the husband who is intended to marry has a good personality and the policewoman has been in the in the force for a period of three years minimum, the marriage will be granted permission.

Omotayo et al., (2013: 50) argue that this gender discrimination and a serious infringement of the right of female police officers. Section 125 of the Nigeria Police Act 23 of 1979 stipulates that married woman police officer shall not be granted any special privileges by reasoning that she is married and shall be subject to posting and transfer as if she was not married.

Section 127 of the Nigeria Police Act 23 of 1979 indicates that if a woman police officer who is not married falls pregnant, she will be terminated from the force, and will only be reappointed with the Inspector General's approval.

3.2.2 South African perspective

Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 259) report that in 1913, the South African Police Force (SAP) was established and was an overwhelming male organisation. Newham, Masuku and Dlamini, (2006: 9) concur that the SAP was an organisation dominated by males and did not bear a resemblance to the structure of the people of South Africa. Bezuidenhout (2002: 111) posits that as SA was under British rule from the late 1890s and early 1900s, it was influenced by Britain regarding female in policing. He further states that even though the British began to appoint policewomen permanently in London by 1915 and provided them with neat uniforms, SA retorted negatively to British suggestions to follow suit. This disapproval soon made way for a more positive approach owing to SA being subjected to the similar demands faced by other countries as a result of the First World War. Bezuidenhout further maintains that this disapproval towards women was further strengthened by the Police Act No. 7 of 1958 that stated that arrests could only be executed by men.

Research has shown that three policewomen were employed as fully fleshed members of the organisation from 1916-1919. Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 111) state that the divisional commissioner for the Western Cape maintained that women did not belong in the service and, as he was supported by most of the commanding officers at that time, which eventually led to the appointment of women being terminated (Reynecke and Fourie, 2001: 259). Women Police (1919), Wrottesley (1938), (in Bezuidenhout 2002: 111) assert that by 1919 the operative of this "official" women's police force worsened in such a way that the criticism of the Minister of Justice influenced the City Council of Cape Town to withdraw all financial support. Consequently, policewomen temporarily left the division. SAPS Magazine (2014: 6) supports that the posts of female detectives were eliminated in 1920 and that it took about 52 years before women were formally recruited into the police as members.

In their study, Reynecke and Fourie (2001) report that women were viewed as illiterate and it was argued that only the 'wrong type' of women would have an interest in the police work, which would result in bad discipline.

Similar arguments continued until the beginning of 1970s when females were employed by the police service. Bezuidenhout (2002) confirms that policewomen were officially admitted on to the Force on 1 January 1972.

According to SAPS (2019/2024: 23), historically, the representation of women in leadership position was extremely low before the Gender Desk and the SAPS's Women's Network were established. In 1994, representivity was 1% females versus 99% males. In 2000, when the support network for women was established, there were 8.35% females versus 91.65% males. In the historical year of 2010 when SA hosted the Soccer World Cup, there were 23.80% females versus 76.20% males and women who actively participated in security matters regarding the 2010 Soccer World Cup. In 2016, the number of females increased to 37.41% as opposed to 62.59% males, and in 2017, SAPS had 36.18% females as opposed to 63.82% males.

According to Reynecke and Fourie (2001), the first white female members were only recruited in 1972 and black females only in 1983. Montesh (2010: 58) argues that in 1972, the SAP enlisted white policewomen for the first time and in 1982, enlistment of African, Coloured and Indian policewomen followed. Even though entry was official, women were not approved the full rights and responsibilities offered to their male colleagues in the beginning. Newham et al., (2006: 16) asserts that although there had always been women in the SAP, they were mainly limited to perform clerical duties.

Montesh (2010: 58) asserts they were primarily employed to do clerical job and were not allowed to contest with men for promotions in the operational domains of the police service. Bezuidenhout and Theron (2000: 22) also assert that the duties of these women were limited to administrative duties in Community Service Centre, helping with minor road accidents scenes and the frisking of female detainees and suspects. Women were not permitted to do to perform investigation duties or to work at the radio control of the flying squad.

Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 260) concur that women joined the SAP not for patrols, but for administrative duties to ease shortage of manpower and enable more men to do patrol duties. In the same vein, Marks (2005: 217-218) also reports that SAPS policewomen were not included to operational policing and were expected to comply with maintaining traditional 'feminist' behaviour and appearance.

According to Reynecke and Fourie (2001), 16 divisional commissioners supported the idea that female police members should be limited to performing only administrative duties and not operational tasks. They further state that differential treatment of females, however, continued to exist and manifested in restrictions on employment, training, professional roles, structures and certain social aspects.

When researching the path to which women in the police were subjected, it is clear that, irrespective of popular opinion, discrimination against policewomen did take place in various fields, sometimes without them realising it because they were so socialised into the processes that internalised oppression prevailed. Morrison (2005: 1) and Montesh (2010: 58) state that women in the police service appointed in 1972 were not on the same employment structure as the policemen. This implied that police in the police had to contest with one another for promotion and not allowed to compete with their male counterparts. Erasmus-Kritzinger, Swart and Mona (2000: 173) support that it was not easy for women to contest for available posts with men in the government sector and white women could contest for posts in lower level positions only.

Morrison (2005: 1) asserts that posts for promotion were allocated in accordance with the numerical strength of policewomen, which restricted the possibilities of promotions. The separate structure of employment was cancelled in 1989 and just one post structure continued to cover all members of the police. Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 260) argue that a separate promotion structure which female officers were placed on, was only rectified in 1990.

Certain courses such as the internal stability course without which certain duties could not be performed were restricted to men. Females were also excluded from various job-specific training courses and were only admitted undergoing such training at a later stage. For example, the training of a limited number of females to become fingerprint expert was only approved in November 1974 (SAP circular 2/29/1, 22 May 1989) in Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 260).

Women would not be trained in groups of 36, like men were, but in groups of 18 to ensure better control (Reynecke and Fourie, 2001). Whereas the basic training of women was exactly the same as that of men, with less emphasis on physical strength, females did not receive training for border police or dealing with violence and riots.

According to Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 260), policewomen were not permitted to have positions in specific components and divisions – for example, in the former Internal Stability Unit (currently known as the Public Order Policing Unit). They further state that women were also forbidden from commanding the police stations or occupying other commanding positions where they would be in charge of men. This was supported by Marks (2005: 217) that policewomen were crowded in the lowest ranks of the force. They were restricted to commanding only women in administrative positions.

Reynecke and Fourie (2001) state that the physical incapability of women resulted in female members having 30% of a male potential and that their existence at police stations formed an untrue resemblance of work potential and numerical strength. Reynecke and Fourie (2001) further maintain that various circulars in SAP Head Office (file 2/29/1), between 1969 and 1991, referred to the duties that policewomen were able to perform, as well as their limitations.

According to the various circulars and other applicable policies, during certain time frames, females were not permitted to execute duties which involved violence, for example, riots duties and the detention of non-compliant males. They were also prevented from being members of the VIP Protection Unit or dog-handlers. Instead, they were appointed in clerical positions and were also utilised in a supportive volume for among others, the Narcotics Bureau, investigate immorality cases which involved woman and children, the forensic laboratory, specific financial services, court orderly duties; charge office duties and the serving of summonses. They were also forbidden from working night duty (Reynecke and Fourie, 2001).

Historically, policewomen in SA and internationally, were marginalised and considered incompetent when comparing them with their male colleagues. The police force had a history of being a predominantly male-dominated job where policewomen had been isolated and differentiated to perform specific types of work. The conceptions of masculinity and femininity had a great impact on what kind of work is believed to be suitable for males and females to engage in.

3.2.3 Transformation in the SAPS

According to De Vries (2008: 128), the SAPS defined transformation as the method which comprised of incorporation, justification and modification within the Police Service, as well as being part of a self-motivated, directing a great deal of attention and quite short-term procedure considered to basically restructure the government employment. As the prior enlistment and selection policies were not legitimate and trustworthy, the commencement of democracy in 1994 brought out a recently developed beginning for employees' enrolment procedures in the SAPS. Van Graan (2005: 52) asserts that this recently developed system also put forward difference to policies regarding promotions and other policies of workforce.

Prinsloo and Bradshaw (2010: 85) state that there were 11 police forces in South Africa before the first democratic election, ten "homeland" police forces and SAP which was the largest force of them all. These police forces had to be transformed into a combined SAPS that would be applicable to society in general. Montesh (2010: 61) asserts that the 11 different law enforcement agencies were eventually incorporated into one police service subsequent 1994. The SAP anticipated the transformation process and as part of their 1991 Strategic Plan emphasised de-politicisation and reform of the police force as two major areas of change. The SAPS Act 68 of 1995, promulgated in 1995, required that the police service be restructured into national divisions, and provincial demarcations to match the new provincial boundaries and stations (Prinsloo and Bradshaw, 2010: 85).

The consolidation was supplemented by other crucial organisational changes, which included representivity in the service, not only as regards to race, but also as regards to gender (Rauch, 2000: 6). Newham et al., (2006: 5) assert that the new SAPS expressed the aim of instituting an organisation that considered the demographic diversity of the country and serve the interests of all South Africans. Stevens and Yach (1995: 93) emphasise that the new SAPS faced the biggest challenge of becoming a representative service to society and to transform the traditionally negative attitude within the police force towards the groups who were oppressed in the past.

Ulicki (2011: 95) reports that the SAPS has been undergoing a process of transformation since democratisation in 1994. Montesh (2010: 55) asserts that before 1994, the police were confronted with a serious legitimacy predicament amongst most South Africans due to several years of ruthless and prejudiced apartheid policing practices. Ulicki (2011) concurs that this resulted in transforming the Police Service into a representative, professional, resourceful, operative, unbiased, transparent, and responsible service which would defend the constitutional rights of all people. Montesh (2010: 55) and Newham et al., (2006: 17) concur that the SAPS drafted the 'Credo Affirmative Action' which expressed that the SAPS shall endeavour to reflect the demographics of the country in all occupational classes and at all levels, in terms of race and gender in order to manifest commitment to this policy and constitutional responsibility.

Ulicki (2011: 96) asserts that external pressures on the SAPS to work towards transformation and organisational change resulted from the government-wide intentions concerning representivity in the public service. She further maintains that the SAPS has been coerced to account to these pressures and the government has obligated gender equitable change on the SAPS to fully incorporate women into policing. In partial attainment of this revolution, SAPS has enacted a national policy of making sure that gender equity in the make-up of the service to become more representative of the society at large (Meyer and Steyn, 2008: 2). Since the commencement of change and transformation in South Africa and the SAPS, much emphasis has been put on the implementation of equality including gender equity (Reynecke and Fourie, 2001: 264).

Sklansky (2006: 1219) asserts that police departments are currently encouraging gender equality and females are actively recruiting females into policing. Garcia (2003); Martin and Jurik (2007); Miller (1999) concur that modern policing functions with male and female officers working together as patrol officers with equal police powers and responsibilities.

Schulz (1995) argues that women have relied on the law to enable them to work as police officers which resulted in transforming their social worker function in policing. Many positive advances have since been made to make sure that there is full participation of women, in both administrative duties and operational policing.

However, policing is still considered as a profession dominated by males, and many police organisations are structured because of gender stereotypes (Kurtz, Linnemann and Williams, 2012: 242).

Although the remarkable strides have been made to address the imbalances and the inequalities of the past, the literature on policing still document occurrences of hostility towards women in policing in South Africa. There is an official policy in the SAPS which stipulates that the posts that are advertised are occupied with the purpose of promoting representivity in the police service (SAPS, 2011). Opposition to the existence of female officers is obvious and thus crucial at the institutional or informal level. In her study on women in the SAPS in the Vaalrand area, Morrison (2004: 188) reports a few findings supporting the perception of opposition concerning women in the police. For example, the 1st Black female police officer to join the SAPS' Equestrian Unit in 2002, faced discouraging challenges at the unit SAPS (2014: 5).

She was not mentored to acquire the required abilities and knowledge regarding horses. She was given a horse named Maxim for the Basic Mounted Course, which was somewhat not predictable. While attending that course, Maxim sent her flying during a jump and as a result, she landed her in hospital with a broken coccyx (small triangular bone at the lower end of the spine in human beings). However, she was resilient not a person to be intimidated easily and, she completed the Basic Mounted Course regardless of her injury.

Morrison (2004: 188) further maintains that female officers stated occurrences of gender prejudice. There were isolated cases of sexual harassment; female officers were not being treated as colleagues; men viewed women as the fragile gender; women were not included in certain training courses; although 'transformation' was encouraged at the top level, there were few changes at the lowest ranks and women officers were undermined by the community. Participants of Morrison's (2005) study also reported that the right to be treated without discrimination especially on the ground of gender remain existed only on paper", with drastic inconsistencies between what is indicated on paper and what transpires in practice (Morrison, 2004: 189, 202). It is apparent that special legislation is urgently needed to improve equal employment opportunities for women in the work force in most police research (Prenzler and Sinclair, 2013: 1) and (Rabe-Hemp, 2008: 433).

Dowler and Arai (2008: 123) report that despite the grown amount of female police officers, women are still underrepresented in operational policing. Dantzker (1997: 26) asserts that although some progress has been made to incorporate women into policing, female officers are still underrepresented in police departments and are underrepresented in supervisory positions and much more work remains to fully incorporate women in police work. Dantzker and Kubin (1998: 20) concur that this perpetual underrepresentation results from persistent opposition to employing women by high ranking officials in any law enforcement organisation. They further maintain that since policing has been mainly a male-dominated occupation, someone might be held accountable for the less advancement proportion of female officers as evidence to show that policing is not a very conducive career for women.

3.2.4 Achievements and the Significant Milestone reached by women in the SAPS

The role of women in the police started to improve during the 1990s with more women taking up posts in policing fields traditionally dominated by men, for example, Spiritual Services, the K-9 Unit, Legal Services and the Forensic Science Laboratory.

However, the appointment of women in senior posts became clearly visible at the turn of the century with the first woman to be appointed as a Deputy National Commissioner in 2002. The women were also not to be outdone as far as scarce skills were concerned.

With time, females gradually began to move into areas that were initially not open for them (Reynecke and Fourie, 2001: 263). For example, the youngest, one and only white female pilot in South Africa, with the rank of a Warrant Officer joined the SAPS' Wonderboom (Pretoria) Air Wing in 2003. Her appointment was followed by the appointment of a Constable who came to be the first African female pilot in the SAPS in 2006. SAPS (2015: 14) highlights that a female Colonel was appointed as the Commander of the National Joint Operational and Intelligence Commanding structures' (NATJOCS) for the duration of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup. A white female sergeant joined the SAPS in 2002, where she started working on underwater, research and rescue tasks (SAPS, 2014: 8). There was also the first African female police officer to join the SAPS' Equestrian Unit in 2002 (SAPS, 2014: 5).

Another advancement is that of the Child Protection Unit (FCS), which is mainly involved in sexual offences against women and children, and is led by a woman, with the rank of Major General. The Divisional Commissioner of Crime Intelligence, also a Major General, was appointed as the first woman to such a pivotal position and is described by her colleagues as an exceptionally hard-working woman (SAPS, 2014: 9). Women in law enforcement are currently having opportunities of performing similar patrol duties as male officers (Gosset and Williams, 1998: 71).

A qualified teacher changed her teaching course to join the SAPS and is now employed at the National Intervention Unit (NIU). She said that it has not been easy to fit in as this division tends to be dominated by male police officers. She further said: "When I joined this unit it was in 2005, there were very few ladies at the time that were joining this unit." "It was a bit of a problem among the male counterparts because, at that time, they didn't want the females among them, but we had to force."

Ten years since she joined this unit, not much has changed. She is one of the twenty-two women in a group of four hundred and sixty-seven members of the National Intervention Unit, an operational response team that deals with medium to high-risk situations. This shortage of policewomen in the NIU has moved police management to recruit more women into the Operational Response Services (ORS). She continued, "The women are afraid to do physical things; that is why they run to administrative work" (eNCA, 2015).

Operational policing in SAPS often deals with various situations, ranging from service delivery protest to violent robberies. Members in operational policing often have to face dangerous and trigger-happy criminals. Many women who choose administrative tasks within the service consider these conditions dangerous. Hence, tactical police divisions tend to be a male-dominated division. However, there now seems to be a growing interest among female officers to start serving in these divisions (eNCA, 2015).

Although gender diversity in police organisations has increased over time, policing remains a male-dominated occupation (Brown and Heidensohn, 2011: 3). In the study conducted by Gosset and Williams (1998), discrimination is perceived and described as delicate and less open and observable today than in the past.

Despite of the female officers' belief that law-enforcement organisations have made advancement, generally, they continue experiencing discrimination from male co-workers and seniors, and from both male and female citizens, due to their gender. Paoline and Terrill (2005: 98) indicate that women have progressively moved away from juvenile and administrative duties.

The researcher argues that there have been many positive advancements that were made to ensure the full representation of women in operational policing. Changes of the legislation and policy have contributed to the improved position of the female police officials within the SAPS to such an extent that they are in many instances enjoying better prospects than their male colleagues (Bezuidenhout, 2002: 114).

3.3 SOUTH AFRICAN LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK ON WOMEN IN POLICING

The evolution to a democratic government and a new constitution that mandated equality for previously disadvantaged groups, had serious implications for the SAPS (Ulicki, 2011: 96). According to Van Graan (2005: 52), several legislations were endorsed to rectify the employment inequalities of the past discriminatory policies. Bezuidenhout (2002: 113) asserts that in South Africa, women are being protected by the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act 97 of 1997, the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 as well as the South African Constitution, 1996. Van Graan (2005: 52) adds that the Public Service Act 103 of 1994 and the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, are among other Acts that were proclaimed.

The inequalities of the past have been addressed by the legislations discussed in the next section.

3.3.1 The South African Constitution, 1996

Section 205(3) of the South African Constitution, 1996 provides the SAPS with the functions that follow: preventing, combating and investigating crime; maintaining public order; protecting and securing the inhabitants of the Republic and their property; and upholding and enforcing the law. Both male and female police officers in the SAPS must perform these functions. However, Parnaby and Leyden (in Chen 2015: 5) argue that the prevention and investigation of crime are believed to be male tasks.

Chen (2015: 5) adds that female police officers have no the skills and the capabilities for fighting crime.

Paoline and Terrill (2005: 100) support that female police officers were (and in numerous occasions still are) alleged to lack the physical and emotional strength required to perform the elementary roles of police work. In attempting to correct the previous inequalities caused by unfair discrimination, South Africa adopted a Constitution that guarantees the right to equality for everyone (Section 2 of the South African Constitution, 1996).

Chapter 2 Section 9(3-5) of the South African Constitution, 1996 states that:

(3) The state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth.

(4) No person may unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds in terms of subsection (3). National legislation must be enacted to prevent or prohibit unfair discrimination.

(5) Discrimination on one or more of the grounds listed in subsection (3) is unfair unless it is established that the discrimination is fair.

Section 195 (1) (i) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 stipulates that "public administration must broadly represent the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to amends the previous imbalances to accomplish broad representation".

Bezuidenhout (2002) argues that even though the legislation had offered protection to female police officials, they have not yet attained a position of equal representation within the SAPS.

3.3.2 The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998

According to Section 2 of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, this Act intends to achieve equity in the workplace by promoting equal employment and fair treatment in employment through eliminating unfair discrimination and implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, in order to ensure equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce. According to Section 1 of the Act “designated groups” refers to black people, women and people with disabilities.

Section 6 of the Act specifies that: “No person may unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly, against an employee, in any employment policy or practice, on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social, origin, colour sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language and birth.”

This Act is giving effect to the Constitution and prescribes that the SAPS put in measures within available resources that are meant to achieve of equality in all responsibility areas.

Unfortunately, women police officers are still not fully represented, and continue to face issues of incorporation at all ranks within police organisations (Paoline and Terrill, 2005: 98). Despite authorised directives and motivations to provide women with equal opportunity, both supervisors and the rank-and-file male officers resisted and obstructed the incorporation of women.

The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 was implemented in the SAPS to influence the constitutional equality principle. It is designed to address the inequalities and unfair discrimination and require the implementation of affirmative action measures to correct the shortcomings in employment and transform the composition and service to meet the requirements of the people of South Africa.

3.3.3 The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service

The South African government's White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (South Africa, 1995) identifies representivity as a key aspect in the foundation of a 'non-sexist and democratic society' and states that in the public service, within a four-year period, 'at least thirty per cent of new recruits to the middle and senior management ranks should be women'. The White Paper is operationalized in the SAPS through the latter's Affirmative Action Policy (SAPS, 1997).

3.3.4 The Affirmative Action Policy

The SAPS affirmative action policy was introduced on 27 June 1997. The study by Montesh (2010) and Newham et al., (2006) emphasises the significance of creating a very different labour force within the SAPS and the application of affirmative action policy. Dempsey and Forst (2012: 188) assert that the most contentious method of ending job discrimination is the concept of affirmative action.

They further state that the concept of affirmative action means employers must take active steps to ensure equal employment opportunity and to correct previous discrimination. Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 257) assert that affirmative action can be considered as the lawful correction of inconsistencies of the past in South Africa. Montesh (2010: 56) affirms that affirmative action is a set of policies designed to promote insertion of all historically disadvantaged groups, thereby addressing concerns regarding discrimination at the workplace.

Rycroft (2009: 313) asserts that affirmative action is the policy designed to eliminate discrimination experienced by the historically disadvantaged groups in employment with a view to achieve equitable representation in all occupational categories and ranks in the workplace. Similarly, Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 257) define affirmative action as a 'tool' to be used in the process achieving gender equality. It is mainly geared towards opening opportunities for marginalised groups, which includes women.

It is not only about appointing people into positions to improve representivity, but is a general method intended at development, empowerment and instituting an environment encouraging the representivity brought about in implementing affirmative action programme. This includes changes in behaviour and attitude – factors that can only be established through re-socialisation processes.

Affirmative action must be result-orientated and focus on the result of employment practices (Dempsey and Forst, 2012: 188). Basically, affirmative action is designed to make up for, or to undo, past discrimination. This includes treating certain previously disadvantaged groups in a special way. Representatives for pro-affirmative action argue that affirmative action can only improve the quality of government services, whereas those who are against it believe that there is going to be worse in the workplace owing to employment of more women.

The Affirmative Action Policy called for 30% of all middle and senior management positions to be held up by women by 2000 and for full representivity of population groups by 2005 (SAPS 1997).

3.3.5 The Promotion of Employment Equity and the Elimination of Unfair Discrimination policy document

According to the Promotion of Employment and Equity and the Elimination of Unfair Discrimination policy document, the SAPS is obligated to get rid of differences and unfair discrimination in practices, procedures and approaches and change its services and structure to reach the requirements of the citizens of South Africa and to reflect the demographics of the country (SAPS, 2001). While the Employment Equity document opens door to addressing questions of how and why gendered divisions are created and sustained in the day-to-day processes of organisational life, in practice, gender equity strategies have been limited to increasing the numbers of women representivity, as described in the Affirmative Action Policy.

Although the SAPS have many regulatory frameworks to promote transformation, there is a concern about the effective use of these regulatory frameworks. There is emptiness in terms of methodologies for monitoring the implementation of legislation pertaining to diversity management and transformation of the SAPS such as Employment Equity, Job Access Strategy and Gender Strategy to advance gender transformation in the SAPS (SAPS, 2019/2024: 38).

3.4 THE CHALLENGES FACED BY WOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING

Policewomen in the SAPS face particular challenges as other police organisations worldwide (Newham et al., 2006: 6). Dantzker (1997: 13) supported this assertion when stating that female police officers face several problems on the job. Some of these problems include opposition by male officers and their worry about whether the public fully accepts them as equally competent as male officers.

Newham et al., (2006: 6) add that most of the challenges faced by policewomen are because of gender prejudices held by male police officers who do not believe that females are suitable for more dangerous aspects of policing.

According to Prenzler (2000: 21), women who joined the police experienced significant problems of sexual harassment and informal discrimination in promotion and deployment. Prenzler adds the most progressive modern police department also carries a recent inheritance of strong resentment against women with a residue of cultural unfairness and patriarchy.

In addition, Dantzker (1997) asserts that the presence of women on the police force creates problems for the organisation, which include police officers' social status, work norms, and group solidarity among officers. Meyer and Steyn (2008: 2) argue that an increase in diversity, to include women, may work to fragment, if not destroy, the concept of a single police culture. Martin (1990) found that women performed well in police work but were under-represented in both general duties of policing and specialised squads, and over-represented in administrative or community-service orientated work.

3.4.1 Lack of acceptance by male officers

As noted, historically women had difficulty of being welcomed into the field of policing (Oruta, Lidava and Gaunya, 2016: 4). Belknap and Shelley (1992), Morash and Haarr (1995), Timmins and Hainsworth (1989) assert that women in policing come across significant resentment and opposition by male colleagues and supervisors. Parvin (2017: 37) avers that majority of senior police officers think that females are incapable of dealing with hostile situations effectively.

Sometimes, the authority thinks that deploying female officers to the field level (operational environments) is not safe because they need extra security which requires additional resource and management.

Horne (in Oruta et al., 2016: 4) found that of all the challenges female police officers face in operational policing, a major challenge is the acceptance by male police officers.

Morrison (2005: 21) reports that although countries differ in their employment of women to police departments, male police officer's resistance to policewomen being recruited in the service has almost being mutual because of the belief that these women will not manage.

Male officers all over the world have consistently believed that women officers are not adequately competent to perform all police tasks and that they have a minor role to play in the police force (Gosset and Williams, 1998: 57).

Wilkinson and Froyland (1996: 4) report that at times male officers feel the necessity to protect women and believe they would not be effective work partners in a violent situation. Feinman (1994); Heidensohn (1992); Martin (1999) assert that male police officers depend heavily on each other for protection and believe that they must protect female officers and that female officers do not provide enough protection for them.

Dantzker and Kubin (1998: 21) add that many male police officers believe that women are less competent than men at handling violent situations and at performing patrol duties because they lack the physical strength required in dangerous and violent situations. Bell (1982: 112) asserts that policemen as individuals and as a collective group have been the most resilient to expanding the role of women in policing. Gosset and Williams (1998: 57) concur that male officers feel reduced in prominence because if women can be able carry out the same duties that male officers have been doing for many years, that takes away their social prominence and standing in society.

Koenig (in Graue, Hildie and Weatherby 2016: 54) state that male officers frequently feel that policewomen will only make their job harder, forcing them to pick up the slack of female officers because of their perceived physical and mental deficiencies.

Koenig (in Graue et al., 2016: 54) further accentuates that male officers tend to believe that female officers are unreliable, slow to learn, unable to handle violent encounters, difficult to supervise, ill-disciplined, are poor drivers, and a myriad of other negative qualities that make them unfit for police work.

In the study conducted by Parvin (2017: 38), senior male police respondents said that many male supervising officers are not comfortable to work with junior female colleagues because it is sometimes not easy to communicate with female officers as they tend to be more emotional compared to the males. Female officers are not always ready to accept criticism of their wrong doings. Besides these, there are childbirth or other physiological issues for which policewomen need long-term leave, which breaks the tempo of regular work. Chen (2015: 5) argues that female police officers should not be included in the police force because they are fragile, and they do not fit into the violent and cold-blooded environment.

Morrison (2005: 21) states that many impediments faced by women in policing, are based on the belief that women will not be able to perform adequately in the elementary police role as police officers. In the study conducted by Newham et al., (2006: 37), about half of the male respondents made statements revealing that they believed that females did not make good police officers. Typically, they thought that women should be confined to office work in the Client Service Centre and help with admin work at the police station, not be involved in operational policing. Graue et al., (2016: 54) concur that policemen view women as only proficient of fulfilling feminized aspects of the job, such as filing, paperwork, and care taking jobs.

Parvin (2017) asserts that female police officers want some extra facilities such as toilets/rest rooms during long duty hours and these facilities are not available in every duty area. The male members can use the toilets of the shops or houses adjacent to the duty areas, but it is not easy for the females to go in those places. For this reason, it sometimes looks unpleasant to deploy the policewomen in those places. They cannot work as detectives or in crime prevention because they become a burden. In the same vein, Chen (2015: 5) argues that female police officers do not possess the skills and abilities to fight crime. Therefore, they cannot perform Crime Prevention and Crime Solving as these tasks are deemed to be masculine.

Ehiemua (2014: 19) argues that females in the police departments are often used as “spare tyres,” which means that they are assigned to those duties that cannot be performed by males. Butler, Winfree and Newbold (2010: 310) assert that women are assigned the following safe duties which are believed to be appropriate for them: domestic violence, abused children and rape victims as well as communications.

According to Dantzker (1997: 13), many male officers believe that women are not competent than men at performing patrol duties. Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 254); Morrison (2005: 20) add that the male-dominated environment tends to be in a predicament for women. On the one hand, certain stereotypes are linked to specific jobs, and on the other hand, women are anticipated to behave in certain ways. Irrespective of the skills they might have, the environment in which they have been socialised adds to the difficulty of acceptance in the operational male environment. Herbert (1998: 349) asserts that women do not have the required strength to reduce or prevent violent situations which the police come into contact. As a result, male officers are vulnerable because it is perceived that women are unable to protect them.

Martin (in Dantzker 1997: 18) asserts that male officers are concerned about women’s lack of authority with male criminals which will also affect their own authority. She further maintains that women working operational policing impede the rule of maintaining respect. Maintaining respect is central to police work. Yet, as many recognise, the authority of the uniform and the office is insufficient; the officer’s personal authority and manner of conveying it are involved in gaining citizens compliance. Male officers also believe that women will not be confident enough towards citizens when citizens challenge their authority (Dantzker, 1997: 18). He further asserts that if female officers do not demand respect from citizens, the latter may also conclude that they can be disrespectful towards male officers.

Graue et al., (2016: 54) add that male officers believe that female officers will be unable to handle fights and that they will have to do it. In contrast, male officers perceive themselves and other men as the ones proficient and accountable for crime fighting and taking care of hardened criminals.

Bell (1982: 119) argues that the gender of an officer in itself does not determine whether violence will or will not transpire between citizen and the police.

He further argues that if violence were to transpire, well-trained officers regardless of their gender would handle it to the best of their ability. Those who are concerned that women may be injured must realise that this take place with men as well.

Notwithstanding that some witnesses put the blame on the “male attitude” for limited numbers of women in policing, perhaps there are also a few possibilities. For example, may be there is a possibility that the current struggles, attitudes or perceptions of women police officers are having an opposing effect, or maybe policing is not an attractive career for women (Dantzker and Kubin, 1998: 29). Wimbush (1995: 17) asserts that the number of women in senior ranks continues to be extremely low.

Robinson (2013: 6)) concurs that the small number of women in senior position and non-stereotypical specialist roles in policing continues to be a problem. To justify the low numbers of women in senior and operational policing roles, the argument has been used by male police that women are physically not suitable for police work (Dodge, Valcore and Klinger, 2010; Silvestri, 2003). This is supported by Paoline and Terrill (2005: 100) that women police officers are alleged to lack the emotional and physical strength required to carry out the basic functions of police work. Vega and Silverman (in Chen 2015: 7) add that female police officers have to challenge the delusion by male police officers that women are not capable to do masculine work.

Balkin (1988: 33) found that the single most prevalent reason given by policemen regarding their negative attitude toward policewomen was the belief that women were physically weak and not aggressive enough to conduct patrols.

In the SAPS, policewomen remain isolated in the less traditional areas of policing such as operational functions and are usually supervised by their male commanders.

3.4.2 Gender discrimination

Oruta et al., (2016: 4) refer to gender discrimination as a form of intimidation that may be performed by male police officers with the purpose of discouraging females to remain in the field. Marshall (2013: 13) argues that although gender discrimination is against the law, it is still a major concern in the workplace. Morrison (2005: 27) emphasises that it will take long to achieve a positive change regarding gender discrimination in the police since the SAPS environment has an entrenched predominantly male-oriented tradition.

Herrington (in Morrison 2005: 27) supports this view and upholds that it will take years of evolution to see any accurate enrichment. Natarajan (2014: 125) asserts that this discrimination may be owing to the prejudice of male officers who are refusing to believe that women can take on the full responsibility of duties.

It can also result from broader social attitudes and beliefs concerning suitable roles for women, or it can reflect perceived or actual discrepancies between men and women with regard to their physical competences. Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 251) assert that although it is now used in a broader sense to indicate the stereotyping of both males and females based on their gender, it is women who suffer most as sexism perpetuates the concept of male superiority. Sexism is directed predominantly against women because men hold an excessive large amount of power within society.

Police departments have long been characterised as masculine organisations, emphasising assertiveness and physical force (De Jong, 2005: 3). Men and women are viewed as being different in character and abilities and are encouraged and permitted to do different types of work in policing (Morash and Haarr, 1995: 114). Despite the demonstrated competence of policewomen, research on attitudes towards them has clearly indicated an ongoing pattern of anti-policewomen orientations which have persisted (Bell, 1982: 112).

Between common sex-role stereotypes and the ideological emphasis of the law enforcement and crime fighting roles in policing, the prevailing wisdom suggests that females were not rational, more short-tempered, less aggressive, less reliable, and physically weak, had unstable emotions, and were generally less qualified than males (De Jong, 2005; Garcia, 2003; Miller, 1999).

Gosset and Williams (1998: 58) argue that there is no data, however, to suggest that these differences make women any less effective as police officers. They further argue that too much data on female officers is based on their policing capabilities in general and especially in operational policing.

Natarajan (2014: 125) postulates that the belief that women are not really suitable for policing has become an intrinsic part of police culture and seriously hampers the inclusion of women in policing. Garcia (2003: 332) asserts that the acceptance of women as different has perpetuated the police cultural norm that employing women makes it difficult to do a good job in policing.

It has been difficult for some men to accept women in policing because they see some policing tasks as inappropriate for women and difficult because they perceive women as not capable to achieve in some situations.

Franklin (2007: 15) confirms that women are viewed as emotionally, mentally and physically unfit for the challenging and terrifying task of policing and do not possess the appropriate gendered characteristics or social roles to carry out “real police work”; therefore, they should not be part of the police profession.

Bezuidenhout (2002: 110) asserts that women are experiencing discrimination in various forms since being admitted to this masculine domain due to the worldwide perception that policing is a so-called masculine occupation. Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 251) emphasise that inequality in employment, in gender terms, has been, and still is, most commonly viewed as arising from inherent contrasts between men and women in the strength, patience, drive, and determination. Marks (2005) also found that inequitable practices prevail in SAPS and that policing is often regarded as an inappropriate occupation for women. Birzer and Roberson (2007: 252) assert that since police work is perceived as too dangerous and too violent for women to manage, women are being discriminated against in policing.

Morrison (2005: 20) concurs that in the police service, women are regarded as inadequate officers and are even regarded as a burden in dangerous situations. Women are presumed to make mistakes that men on the job would not make, for example, accidentally shooting a bystander instead of the target Koenig (in Graue et al., 2016: 54).

Morrison (2005: 27) adds that gender discrimination constitutes a rupture of human rights according to the South African Constitution, and any discrimination of any kind in the workplace is therefore an offence.

Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 264) assert that sexual harassment and discrimination are now also regarded as offences in the Police Regulations, 1996, Section 19.

Martin (in Oruta et al., 2016: 4) asserts that gender discrimination for female police officers can occur during the recruitment process, and once hired, female police officers may then be discriminated by receiving uniforms designed for males which do not fit properly on the female body.

Dempsey and Forst (2012: 190) posit that police departments based their discrimination against women on a fear that they could not do police work effectively owing to their sex. Balkin (1988: 35) concurs that the police cultural values about sex roles and work make the presence of women in policing to be a threat.

Brown & Fielding (1993) and Dick and Jankowicz (2001) argue that female officers are mostly tasked to respond to victims of sexual offences, and complaints which are not dangerous, whereas male officers are more likely to be allocated violent crimes, public disorder and dangerous situation calls. As the result, they have less opportunities of working in other divisions within the organisation. In addition, Price (1996: 3) agrees that the lack of women in certain special units of the police is an indication of gender discrimination. In her study, respondents pointed out that they are not included in units such as mounted, harbour, highway patrols and they are told there are no vacancies while, women perceive that there are in fact, vacancies. If it happens that a woman gets into one of the male-only units, she experiences substantial hardships.

Belknap and Shelley (1992: 51) assert that stereotypes and myths about what is considered "women's work" continue to plague policewomen, ultimately interfering with their pursuit of being successful police officers. Although the salary structure of the female officers is same as their male counterparts, some areas such as deployment on the operational assignments where the officers are entitled to some "fringe benefits" and considered to be the more prestigious, are less accessible to females (Parvin, 2017: 33). Price (1996: 4) adds that female police officers trust that their importance is not valued by the department and that they are, generally, an undervalued group.

According to Morrison (2005: 21), sex discrimination can be perceived as the cause for women to be rarely in police patrols. The supposition is that women are not biologically or socially armed to carry out traditionally male jobs in areas such as firefighting and policing.

Discrimination is having a problem of weakening attachment to the conservative social order and keeping the people from evolving any trustworthiness to the employer.

Bell (1982: 119) argues that the main obstacle to overcome for women entering the police profession remains discrimination from within the police organisation.

Bell further maintains that whatever the subconscious motivation for the discrimination is exists, and it will continue to do so until specifically addressed and eliminated.

Women police officers continue to face acceptance issues in a male-dominated occupation, despite various advances in the last years (Paoline and Terrill, 2005: 97). Dowler and Arai (2008: 123) assert that to gain acceptance in a traditionally male-dominated field has been burdensome. Parvin (2017: 33) contends that the universal agreement that policing is all about “force” and therefore, the females can never turn into “good” officers because of their non-compliance with the ‘force model’. For this reason, in spite of having improved female involvement in the police force, the integration is becoming harder. Sousa and Gauthier (2008: 6) confirm that whereas women and men are having some of the similar reasons for resigning from police work, women are reporting gender discrimination as a reason for quitting.

3.4.3 Sexual harassment

In terms of Section 6(3) of the South African Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998, sexual harassment is a form of discrimination and is therefore forbidden. Morash and Haarr (1995: 122) assert that policewomen are faced with sexual harassment issues which includes offensive jokes and comments, romantic overtures and touching, exhibition of pornography, and sexual assault.

Ulicki (2011: 99) concurs that policewomen routinely experience behaviour which harass them sexually ranging from sexually suggestive comments and jokes, to unwanted touching, to rape. She further asserts that for a long time, both women and men accepted sexual harassment in police organisations as “an inevitable consequence of women moving into public sphere, a constant reminder to women that they were encroaching on male terrain and could expect to be treated first and foremost as sexual beings and only secondarily as workers.

Brown and Heidensohn (2000: 77) show that discrimination and harassment are more likely to occur in organisations where women constitute 20% or less in the workplace; where there is an uneven distribution of women in the full range of departments or specialisations; and where women are isolated in organisation location.

Ulicki (2011: 99) argues that the SAPS' overall treatment of issues of gender equity, which is based on tackling representivity and an emphasis on women's need to take responsibility for their own 'upliftment', is introduced on the belief that equality already exists for policewomen.

Organisational cultures and structures play an important part in pattern and prevalence of gender-inequitable and discriminatory practices, such as sexual harassment. According to Marshall (2013: 13), "sexual harassment and discrimination are prevalent in police departments and commanders and supervisors do not only allow their subordinates to do such practices, but they, themselves, are also perpetrating such behaviour". Ulicki (2011) asserts that all women who reported sexual harassment were sexually harassed by a colleague or supervisor, not a subordinate. The majority of the cases were harassment by a supervisor. Amos (2016: 45) concurs that the senior male police officials are either demanding for sexual satisfaction or money in order to do their official duty for the female police officers. Hess (in Ulicki 2011: 102) contends that the Western Cape Attorney General decided not to prosecute a former station commander accused of sexually harassing a policewoman for six years. The accusations against him included trying to pull the policewoman's pants down, telling her he had wet dreams about her and that he would have sex with her before his retirement.

According to Ulicki (2011), information and statistics regarding pervasiveness or nature of sexual harassment in the SAPS are partial. The statistics available only consider accusations that have been dealt with at official disciplinary trials, majority of cases are dealt with casually. Therefore, the full magnitude of sexual harassment in the SAPS is unidentified.

3.4.4 Organisational impediments

Robinson (2013: 4) argues that police organisations worldwide experience disparity in respect of gender representation in promotional and specialised police roles. Robinson (2013) further maintains that according to research conducted by Irving (2009) in Australia, women are over-represented in administrative roles and under-represented in specialised areas such as highway patrol, tactical response task team, etc.

Furthermore, Paoline and Terrill (2005: 99) report that many problems facing women in operational policing rotate around traditional assumptions about police work, much of which has been traced back to the culture of the police. Chen (2015: 6) and Parvin (2017: 37) assert that the police culture causes the oppression of female police officers.

This is supported by Graue et al., (2016: 54) that presently there is a perception in the police culture that the institution is inherently masculine, and that women do not have the inherent capabilities to be successful or to contribute to the institution because of their lack of conventional masculine values.

Chen (2015) reports that owing to the nature of women's instincts, women apparently obey and accept the organisation's policies and rules regardless of whether they entirely agree with them or not, whereas men are bolder to express their opinions in the organisation. Therefore, men's opinions are more frequently heard and accepted because they do not have as many restrictions as women. Since policing happens to be a male-dominated environment, female police officers come across the precise similar difficulties as in any other patriarchal organisations and it is not easy for them to be found in this high physical demanding and time demanding policing workplace environment.

Morash and Haarr (1995: 113) assert that male officers treat their female colleagues with hostility because of the masculine-oriented police subculture. Robinson (2013: 5) asserts that there is a possibility that masculinised selection criteria for specialist and promotional policing roles may be discouraging for some women and may in fact directly or indirectly discriminate against them. For example, selection processes that emphasise physical power and readiness may obstruct women from entering the police environment even if some of the physical assessments applied to the selection of new recruits are not reflective of the ability required to perform the job (Lonsway, Wood, Fickling, De Leon, Moore, Harrington, Smeal and Spear, 2002).

Robinson (2013: 5) concurs that it was found that even though the service attracted 25 percent of women applicants, only 5-12 percent of these applicants were able to get through the selection process. She further concurs that unofficial procedures were followed to hinder these women from being incorporated into the service. Discriminatory selection processes that targeted men and excluded women were identified as hindering the entry of women into policing for many years.

Rabe-Hemp (2007) asserts that there is also a possibility that the recruitment system and informal networks are also holding women back from entering promotional and specialist roles once they are in the police force. This contention is supported by a study in the United Kingdom which found that female officers remain significantly underrepresented in senior ranks.

Only 26% of policewomen were promoted to ranks above constables after ten years of service whereas 50% of policemen had achieved this (Dick & Metcalfe, 2007: 90). Rabe-Hemp (2008: 3) concurs that it was extremely difficult for policewomen to be promoted through the ranks of police departments.

Rabe-Hemp (2008) maintains that when applying for specialist and promotional roles, policewomen also face greater challenges when appointed to these roles. Specifically, the social isolation of being potentially the sole woman in a unit of men and the cultural segregation of being excluded by colleagues. Chen (2015: 7) supports that eventually social segregation is often the price paid by women for joining the police service. She further supports that because of this, female officers have difficulty blending into this male-dominated environment. Robinson (2013: 5) confirms that this marginalises women from the informal networks within policing that are essential to career progression. Robinson (2013: 6) asserts that almost as a means of substantiating this, women are requested to show excessive demonstrations of physical strength and stamina that have little demeanour on the job to do.

These requirements are still existing regardless of the fact that studies have shown that physical strength is not a prerequisite of police effectiveness. Robinson (2013) further maintains that although there is no doubt that the masculinised police culture makes the integration and acceptance of women in policing difficult to achieve but generally, at least change is slowly occurring.

Dodge, Valcore and Klinger (2010) argue that despite this improvement, there continues to be cultural barriers and organisational systems that serve to thwart or block women from entering senior policing positions and operational policing.

Chen (2015: 7) reports that female officers who attempt to meet the crime-fighting image of toughness and masculinity may be labelled negatively but female officers who do not attempt to meet this perceived ideal may risk being defined as weak police whereas male police officers do not necessarily have these problems.

People automatically assume they are called “police”, but the gender disparity always specifically concentrates on female police officers.

Morash and Haarr (1995: 122) report that female officers are probable to come across complex stages of being harassed, blatant hatred, and other harmful social collaborations on the occupation than their male counterparts. This shows that the organisation culture is generally hostile toward female police officers (Chen, 2015: 7).

The researcher argues that female officers remain overly represented in clerical and supportive functions in police organisations owing to the fact that male officers have not accepted them as their equals in operational policing, but this assertion is not final.

3.4.5 Recruitment barriers

Lonsway et al., (2002: 5) report that most law enforcement agencies utilise a system of physical testing in their selection process based on the assumption that physical strength and agility are necessary for successful performance as a police officer. They further report that the over-emphasis of entry exams on upper body strength, weed out many qualifying women despite studies showing that physical fitness is less related to job performance than communication skills. Birzer and Roberson (2007: 252) assert that unnecessary entrance standards are other contributing factors to underrepresentation of policewomen in the organisation. They further assert that a lot of women who apply for work in the police organisation are washed out in the course of the recruitment process owing to many of these entrance standards which test physical strength.

Lonsway et al., (2002) concurs that the current recruitment tests still block highly qualified women from joining the police organisation, even though discriminatory height requirements were finally discarded in the early 1970s. The issue of physical strength is the important part of the traditional unwillingness to recruiting women into policing.

Natarajan (2014: 125) avers that gender stereotyping plays a key role in restraining the enlistment of women to the police, regardless of the attempts across the world to eradicate the inequality and discrimination of gender within the police organisation.

Archbold and Schulz (2012: 57) assert that some research suggests that female officers did not receive enough training in the police force.

Female officers have sometimes found that they did not receive enough assertiveness and decision-making in the police academy. Some police colleges apparently “protect” female recruits by testing them on different entrance criteria than males.

Prenzler and Sinclair (2013: 4-5 and 14) argue that the police service in England and Wales has made considerable evolution in the recruitment, representation and progression of female officers over the last ten years.

Similarly, Muhammad et al., (2016) report that there are more female officers and staff in NPF than even before. Female recruitment is resilient, and women officers’ likelihoods of promotion are generally on par with their male counterparts and trend data indicated that women were continuing to move up the ranks, and there were examples of women at very highest rank – including South Africa.

3.4.6 Promotion barriers

Parvin (2017: 37) argues that the studies from different perspectives suggested that it is the males who hold top managerial positions mostly in the police organisations and this issue acts as one of the barricades to women equality. Morrison (2004: 190) asserts that senior positions in the SAPS are still dominated by men and the contributions of policewomen are often not seriously taken. Garcia (2003:330) adds that the tenacious treatment of women police as different from their male colleagues has caused a battle in the police organisation and kept them within the lower ranks of the organisation. Morash and Haarr (1995: 122) assert that policewomen are not receiving promotion opportunities like their male counterparts, they have less access to jobs leading to promotions and less chance of growth in their job.

The participants in Graue, Hildie and Weatherby (2015) study indicated that there is preference present when people are promoted, to be promoted to a high rank is based on whether higher ranking officials like you or not. They further indicated that women are not liked as men are the ones in these senior ranks and they first promote the people they know to be the strongest and then their friends.

So, most of the time, women are left unnoticed even if they have made it in the interviews and done all the right things because they are not friends with the senior people or are just not in the male majority.

Marshall (2013: 13) maintains that women also face discrimination during their annual reviews, which are an important tool in choosing candidates for promotion. Many female officers believe they are subjected to discriminating appraisals owing to their gender. They are frequently viewed as token hires or as “weak” and this result in unfair evaluations of performance by their supervisors and a barrier to seeking promotion.

The police force seems to have kept a two-tiered development pattern along gender lines with regard to promotion and recognition. Traditionally, policemen are having the expectation and experience of progression through the ranks with males ending up in occupying the senior and dominant positions. Over the years, policing has been established and developed by men, resulting in male-based structures, frameworks and practices. In investigating the gender inequality in policing, Natarajan (2008: 32) argues that gender prejudice and reluctance to implement mandatory modifications to influence the organisation debatably driven by a concealed aspiration to preserve the current situation in policing, resulting in a persistence of a male-dominated organisation.

Soonties and Anthony (2015: 3) argues that there is a continuous struggle in male-dominated police organisations with the perception that women are ill or inadequately prepared for management functions even though women are equal to their male co-workers in both competitiveness and effectiveness. Miller (1999: 82) asserts that women are also viewed as not emotionally capable of management.

Jones (in Gosset and Williams 1998: 70) postulates that male supervisors who decide about policewomen based on presuppositions of their assumed shortages or who try to defend female officers limit them in their police work and impede their career likelihoods. Male managers start at the beat level and progress upwards.

The male officers’ cynical and discriminatory activities towards female officers basically remain as they progress to higher ranks, blocking female officers without limit up to the top ranks (Gosset and Williams, 1998: 70). In the study conducted by Corsianos (2009) in Canada, the promotional process presented various gender-specific challenges for women officers. Participants believed that the decision to promote someone was made before the interview stage. Favouritism played a key role in the decision-making.

Many women with childcare responsibilities believed that this disadvantaged them, as they could not frequently “hang out” with other officers at bars, and attend “tailgate” parties and other popular police events. It was at these “get-togethers” where people “got to really know each other” and ultimately this made the difference in determining who was to be promoted.

The study of Archbold, Hassell, and Stichman (2010: 289) discovered that male managers strongly encouraged the female officers to partake in the promotion process. Some of them felt that the encouragement by their male managers created a perception in the organisation that a woman would be promoted regardless of her achievements and capabilities. The conception that any female officer would be promoted simply because she was a woman further highlighted the token status of the women in that police agency and, consequently, many female police officers opted not to run after promotion. Schulz (1995: 5) adds that studies are finding that women do not make themselves regularly available for promotional opportunities both for personal reasons and because systematic discrimination against them still exist.

Felkenes, Peretz and Schroedel (1993: 52) argue that women were resisted to do patrol work and crime investigation. It is felt that the experience of patrol work crime investigation is essential for supervisory and command positions. Therefore, women do not obtain the experience necessary for promotion.

Felkenes et al., (1993) further argue that resistance of male officers to the idea of being commanded by a woman has reduced female chances for promotion. Warner, Steel and Lovrich (1989: 563) assert that whereas women have made outstanding advancement in attaining employment and climbing to managerial status within some areas of government work, they have less succeeded in achieving jobs and progressive ranks in the police department.

Wilcock (2017: 8) argues that absence of female role models in top management positions, apparently obstructs women who attempt to climb the career ladder within policing. These women are not inspired or guided by anyone therefore, they may be discouraged to attempt to progress; and this makes them to remain at lower ranks and prolongs problems related to male dominance.

According to Dempsey and Forst (2012: 202), policewomen often do not pursue promotional process as much as they could or should and in an effort to avoid tokenism, many avoid promotions for fear that others may perceive them as having obtained them due to their gender and not their abilities. Some policewomen feel that being promoted attracts unwanted attention of negativity from male police officers, resulting in a stigma for other women who test for promotions.

3.4.7 Existing myths and perceptions about women in the SAPS

Myth	Patriarchal stereotypes	Perceptions
Women are good with pool her down' syndrome.	Patriarchy, indoctrination and socialisation – some women see men as better leaders than females	Women lose their feminine side when working in male-dominated environments.
Women are weak.	Women are emotionally weak.	Women kick the ladder when they are up the ladder.
Women sleep their way up.	Men tend to be less harsh to females than females to females.	Women engage in negative competition.
Women are lazy	Women are physically weak.	Women are unfamiliar with the operational environment.
Women are not focused.	Women tend to be too personal, enforcing authority the wrong way.	Leadership does not take the empowerment of women seriously.
Women are too status conscious.	Women cannot lead and manage.	Professional jealousy.
	Women prefer to be led by men.	

These myths, misconceptions and stereotypes have an impact on how women are seen, interpreted and treated in the SAPS (SAPS, 2019/2024: 29).

3.5 CURRENT REALITY IN THE SAPS

According to Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 265), during an empirical study on gender representation conducted in 1998, women in the ranks inspector which now changed to (Warrant Officer) to superintendent which now changed to (Lieutenant Colonel) are more representative than females below and above these ranks, as well as the average representation of females in the SAPS as a whole.

It was found that women are distributed in a more representative manner between operational and support duties. It was also noted that, at student level, a greater percentage of females were recruited than before.

Reynecke and Fourie (2001) further report that in appointments from senior superintendent (Colonels) to Commissioners (Generals), representivity is low and females are mostly appointed and developed into supporting (administrative) posts. It was found that a large number of females did not apply for senior positions and of those who did apply, percentage wise even less were appointed. One must take into consideration the fact that the females who qualify for these post levels, especially in the operational stream, joined the police service and were promoted in the disparate phase, which resulted in a lack of experience (a requirement of appointment at these levels).

Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 267) reports that during the *en mass* placement of Captains and Lieutenant Colonels, it was also found that a large number of females did not want to move out of the offices to perform operational duties.

This can be seen as an indication or self-doubt of the internalised oppression and socialisation processes still present in the SAPS. Women need to be empowered to feel confident about senior posts.

3.6 THE VALUE OF POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING

The financial and human costs of police brutality are high. Police executives and community leaders can endeavour toward employing more women officers who will be less likely to engage in brutality, by better understanding the gender dimensions of excessive force (Lonsway et al., 2002: 3).

Police departments struggling with complaints regarding the excessive use of force by policemen, should hire policewomen to reduce these incidents in their organisations.

3.6.1 The use of powers by female police officials during arrest

Arrest refers to deprivation of freedom with intent to ensure a person's presence in court (Joubert, 2013: 255). Since arrest is a powerful instrument for the police to have at their disposal in order to combat prevent and investigate crime, a balance should be found between protecting on the other hand, the constitutional rights of the individual and, on the other hand, the community's interest in effective policing.

When a suspect withstands arrest or tries to escape the arrest by fleeing it is a well-known principle in most global systems of law that force may be used to overcome such resistance or avert the escape of a fleeing suspect (Joubert, 2013: 267).

Arrest decision is probably the most studied decision of street-level police officers which is next to the use of force (National Research Council, 2004). Individual police officers make arrest decisions on a regular basis that potentially hold criminals liable for the crimes they committed, and they make arrest decisions that deny citizens of their freedom. Section 13(3) (b) of the Police Service Act 68 of 1995 stipulates that a member who performs an official duty is authorised by law to utilise only the minimum force that is reasonable in the circumstances. Although are mandated to enforce the law, police officers may use discretion when utilising their arrest powers. One traditional belief has been that women officers are less effective in making arrests in serious offences (Berg, 1999: 292).

3.6.2 Good communication skills

Research conducted in the United States and internationally reveals that policewomen currently use a policing style that depends more on communications skills and less on physical force (Harrington, Lonsway, Smeal and Spillar, 2000: 3).

Paoline and Terrill (2005: 100) assert that women are more skilled at reducing violence as a result of their communicative verbal skills. Their verbal skills have also been set down to a more collaborative consultative tactic to policing that pursues to work with citizens as opposed to being inaccessible from them (Miller, 1998: 162).

Furthermore, Ehiemua (2014: 20) contends that policewoman is softer and patient in nature whereas a policeman is disposed to using forceful intervention, which usually causes violent conflicts with people.

If policewomen can advise their male colleagues in time, convince the crowd softly and provide patient explanations, then conflicts should be resolved in a more peacefully manner.

Wells and Alt (2005: 104) concur that defusing an immoral condition by utilising good communication skills can assist officers in every single aspect of their jobs.

Novak, Brown and Frank (2011: 569) assert that early female officers executed fewer arrests when they came across the suspects. Morash and Green (1986) report that that women were more competent in executing arrests like their male counterparts. Parsons and Jesilow (2001) and Robinson (2000) confirm that both male and female officers make same arrest decisions during encounters with suspects.

In addition, Wells and Alt (2005: 105) assert that even though female officers have to use the similar level of force frequently as their male counterparts when performing their duties, women are considerably less likely to utilise both lethal and excessive forces. Furthermore, police departments have long been categorised as masculine organisations, stressing physical force and assertiveness (Paoline and Terrill, 2005: 98). Wells and Alt (2005: 104) assert that although some law enforcement organisations endure to promote the style of paramilitary policing of strong, hostile conduct, this continues to result in poor relations with the community, abuse of complaints and sometimes violent encounters. Making a police organisation more diverse by employing women who bring a different dimension to police work has helped reduce problems connected with excessive use of force when conducting arrests.

Corsianos (2009) argues that female officers have not only been shown to be as capable as males in terms of police service delivery, but they are also generally better at diffusing violent situation and less dependent on force. Franklin (2007: 4) asserts that women are in general better communicators and are more likely to soften and reduce a potentially volatile condition by means of communication as opposed to reacting with violence.

Schuck and Rabe-Hemp (2007: 93) and Rabe-Hemp (2009: 116) support that women are much less likely to use extreme controlling behaviour than men, such as threats and physical restriction.

Harrington et al., (2000: 3) assert that women are less likely to become involved in use of excessive force situations and can calm down possible violent interactions.

The fact that many females employ their communication skills instead of physical force is an advantage to the police departments, especially regarding possible civil claims complaints from inhabitants.

Lonsway et al., (2002: 3) state that female officers are cited at proportions considerably below those of male officers when there are civil claims of excessive force. Furthermore, no female officers are named as perpetrators in cases of police officer involved sexual assault, sexual abuse, and domestic violence. Lunneborg (1989); Lonsway et al., (2002) concur that cost for civil liability pay outs for excessive force lawsuits by women officers is significantly less than their male counterparts.

Women continue to nurture and protect through attempt of solving problems without necessarily depending on official sanctions and force. As a result, female officers can achieve similar conclusions as their male counterparts but less aggressively (Berg, 1999: 292).

Lonsway, Moore, Harrington, Smeal and Spillar (2003: 6) asserts that employment and retention of more women, can assist police departments to change their emphasis to one that emphasises interpersonal skills and cooperation with the community. Compared to policemen, policewomen have been found to be less violent in their policing style, for example, making smaller number of apprehensions, issuing less traffic fines, are less likely to receiving complaints from citizens, and less likely to utilising excessive force (Lonsway, 2001).

Lonsway et al., (2002: 3) reports that police management should appoint more policewomen due to the following reasons:

- In terms of civil liability pay outs for excessive use of force lawsuits, policewomen cost substantially less than their male counterparts.
- Policewomen are significantly under-represented in both citizen complaints and sustained allegations of excessive force compared to male officers.

The presence of women police provides an alternative contact point for victims of crime who are reluctant to interact with male officers.

In addition, police are now expected to more accurately reflect the communities they serve in their personnel profiles, in line with a more substantive concept of 'democratic policing', and this principle is reinforced through public support for female officers. Natarajan (2008: 16) argues that the presence of women in policing would boost the general intelligence level of police officers and create a police system that would detect crime and also prevent it.

3.6.3 Increase in solving of criminal cases

The police service sometimes needs policewomen to help achieve the task of trying to solve criminal cases through camouflages. E.g. policewomen can camouflage themselves as ordinary housewives with the purpose of infiltrating illegal casinos, dress as modern girls to raid a home sex party, act as a girl walking alone to lure criminals and play as lovers to criminals in order to bring them to justice. These police jobs cannot be done by policemen alone (Ehiemua, 2014: 20). Research shows that policewomen attend to domestic violence incidents more effectively which amount to approximately half of all violent crime calls (Muhammad et al., 2016: 30).

3.6.4 Leadership styles

Women bring their leadership style to law enforcement especially as they move into supervisory positions and achieve top ranks (Wells & Alt, 2005: 111). Sabat and Mishra (2010: 372) assert that women supervisors within the police provide a more human face to the organisation. Eagly and Smichdt (2001: 782) argue that women are less hierarchal more compliant and cooperative and extra orientated to enhance other's self-respect. Women are also more participative and democratic than males.

Female leaders have internalised gender-stereotypic reservations about their capability for leadership. They may gain confidence by making collaborative decisions that they can determine are in line with their associates' expectations. Therefore, proceeding in a participative approach may enable many female leaders to overcome other's resistance with their acceptance gain self-confidence, thereby be effective (Eagly and Smichdt, 2001: 790).

3.6.5 Improvement of police responses to crimes against women and children

The study by Morrison (2004) found that policewomen are needed most often when the victims are women, children and older people in society because of their gentle and sympathetic approach than most of their male co-workers and are more sympathetic and concerned feelings.

Sabat and Mishra (2010: 373) assert that female police officers have a strong belief that in order to successfully handle domestic disputes they need sympathy and understanding.

In addition, Lonsway et al., (2003: 8) emphasise that it is worth perceiving that female officers have long been seen as being more effective to crimes of violence against women than their male counterparts because the police response in this area is so critical. By increasing the number of women in law enforcement, the overall quality of police response to cases of violence against women would improve greatly. Sabat and Mishra (2010: 374) concur that if more women are employed in policing at all ranks and in operational policing, the handling of domestic violence would improve and would dramatically enhance a police department's ability to respond effectively to violence against women. Female victims will also be encouraged to report their complaints to the police because they will be more confident that their pleas for help will be treated seriously.

3.7 SUMMARY

The study conducted by Bezuidenhout (2002: 117) about performance of female police officers in male-dominated environments indicates that negativity towards female police officers within the police service has persisted even though they have proved themselves as capable of executing most policing tasks satisfactorily. Muhammad et al., (2016) argue that the NPF is also in a state of uncertainty. Significant changes are taking place.

They further argue that there has been a remarkable departure from the conventional relatedness to children and women-related duties to experiences involving women in diverse areas of police jobs. Women officers now investigate and prosecute cases involving men.

Bezuidenhout (2002) further indicates that the occupational achievements of female police are as noble as that of their male counterparts and in some instances even better. Some male police officials still cling to the traditional viewpoint that women should not be in policing. Regardless of devastating evidence that women and men are equally proficient in doing police work, prevalent prejudice in police appointment, selection practices and enlistment policies keep the numbers of policewomen very little.

This chapter discussed the historical background of women in policing globally and in South Africa, legal framework regulating women in policing, challenges faced by these women and their achievements. It also looked at the significance of women in the police especially in operational policing.

Despite the evidence given in this chapter, women remain underrepresented in senior positions and even further underrepresented in policing especially in operational fields.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the findings and discussion on the representation of women in operational policing in Tshwane. This study was intended to explore the reasons for underrepresentation of South African policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane. The focus of the study was only on policewomen. The researcher conducted one-on-one interviews with the research participants who directly perform operational duties at police station level. These research participants were employed at the following identified police stations: Atteridgeville, Pretoria Central, Pretoria West and Sunnyside.

The researcher followed Tesch's proposed steps when analysing the findings of this research to gain a greater knowledge thereof. The researcher started by interpreting the entire recorded interviews into transcriptions and carefully read the entire transcriptions from the beginning to the end and then made notes. After reading all the transcripts from the beginning to the end, the researcher recorded the themes that came out, arranged similar themes together labelling major themes, distinctive themes and remainders.

The researcher changed the most explanatory wording for the themes into categories and grouped the themes relating to each other together. Assembled information material belonging to each category in the same place. The findings are presented in a form of a novel.

4.2 PERSONAL/BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS

The participants were requested to tell their age, ranks and years of working experience in the SAPS or operational policing. At Atteridgeville Police Station, most participants were aged between 36-37 years, with ten years working experience in the service and they were all Constables. Only one sergeant was aged 48 years with 17 years of working experience, and one was a lieutenant colonel of 51 years of age with 29 years of working experience. At Pretoria Central Police Station, most participants were aged between 30-36 years, with nine to ten years of working experience and they were all Constables.

Only one captain was 54 years old with 30 years of working experience and one lieutenant colonel of 57 years of age with 33 years of working experience.

At Pretoria West Police Station, most participants were aged between 36-47 years. They were two constables and three sergeants, all non-commissioned officers with working experience between 9-17 years.

At Sunnyside Police Station, most of these participants were aged between 34-38 years, with nine to ten years of working experience and they were all constables. Only one captain and one lieutenant colonel were both aged 50 years with 25 and 29 years of working experience.

The researcher aimed to interview five (5) female police officers, two (2) commissioned female police officers and three (3) non-commissioned female police officers in each identified police station in the Tshwane. However, it was not possible to reach the intended amount of commissioned female police officers because the proportion of commissioned female police officers participating in operational policing is very low in Tshwane (See Table 1) below.

Table 1: Personal /Biographical Information of Participants

Name of Police Station	Age of participants	Ranks of Participants	Years of participant's working experience
Atteridgeville	36 years	Constable	10 years
	37 years	Constable	10 years
	37 years	Constable	10 years
	48 years	Sergeant	17 years
	51 years	Lieutenant Colonel	29 years
Pretoria Central	30 years	Constable	9 years
	34 years	Constable	9 years
	36 years	Constable	10 years
	54 years	Captain	30 years
	57 years	Lieutenant Colonel	33 years

Pretoria West	36 years	Constable	9 years
	39 years	Constable	11 years
	39 years	Sergeant	14 years
	40 years	Sergeant	14 years
	47 years	Sergeant	17 years
Sunnyside	34 years	Constable	9 years
	35 years	Constable	10 years
	38 years	Constable	10 years
	50 years	Captain	25 years
	50 years	Lieutenant Colonel	29 years

The participants were also requested to indicate the number of commissioned and non-commissioned female police officers who participate in operational policing. The participants at Atteridgeville SAPS indicated that there are 27 non-commissioned policewomen working operational policing at their station. They further indicated that 23 of those policewomen are constables and four of them are sergeants. There are no female warrant officers or commissioned female police officers working shifts. Only one female lieutenant colonel is the head of detectives. Although she is doing operational policing, she is not working 12-hour shift and she works night duties only when she is on standby.

All detective members do operational policing and they work office hours (8-4) Monday to Friday. They work after hours when they are on standby duties. According to these participants, there are no female police officers who are shift commanders at their police station. Male commissioned officers are heading all four shifts. There are four shifts at all police stations in the country named Shift A, B, C, and D.

At Pretoria Central, most participants pointed out that they are unsure about the number of commissioned and non-commissioned female police officers participating in operational policing at their station, but they answered that question based on their shifts. These participants indicated that there are no warrant female police officers or sergeant female police officers on their shift participating in operational policing. They further indicated that out of four shifts/reliefs at their police station, only one shift is having a female shift commander who is a lieutenant colonel.

Participant No. 5, who is a female police Lieutenant Colonel indicated that she is the relief/shift commander of 40 members which consisted of eight female constables, six male warrant officers, three male sergeants, 21 male constables and two female commissioned officers, herself and the captain. It's clear that the amount of male police officers in this shift outnumbers the amount of female police officers.

At Pretoria West, the research respondents indicated that there are approximately 26 non-commissioned female police officers working operational policing. According to these participants, there are no commissioned female police officers in operational policing at their station. The highest rank for female police officers working operational policing is sergeant and no policewoman is in charge of the relief/shift. All shift commanders are males in Pretoria West Police Station.

In support of this statement, Dick and Jankowicz (2001: 187) indicate that there have been no women in the managerial positions of their research participants, which reflected the shortage of women in these ranks. Their participants consisted of male and female constables who are non-commissioned officers and commissioned male officers. Participant No. 4 in Sunnyside indicated that there are nine non-commissioned female police officers (all Constables), two commissioned officers (Lieutenant Colonel and a Captain) and one female captain working at a detective service. This participant further indicated that males are outnumbering women in operational policing.

It appears that women representation in operational policing is ignored and there is no growth for junior members especially women in the targeted police stations in Tshwane.

The study conducted by Parvin (2017: 37) on women working in operational policing indicated that this type of structure persuades the male friendly environment within the organisation, which eventually hinder the advancements of females.

4.3 REASONS FOR UNDER-REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING IN TSHWANE

The following are the reasons for the underrepresentation of policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane:

4.3.1 Police culture

The perception that women are not suitable for policing has become an intrinsic part of the culture of the police and seriously creates hurdles for the incorporation of women in policing (Natarajan, 2014: 125). It appears that the culture of the police of not employing women in the past has a huge impact in the representation of women in operational policing. This was supported by Participant No. 4 in Sunnyside who indicates that *"The culture in the SAPS before I even joined the SAPS was male-dominated. Only a few were employed as clerks not in operational policing. Because of these reasons we are outnumbered by male officers in all ranks. We still have a shortage of policewomen. Because of the imbalances of males and females police officers, policewomen do not feel free to work operational policing."* Participant No. 4 in Pretoria Central asserts that *"In the past, there were no policewomen in the SAPS. Most of them were clerks who were incorporated in the SAPS because of the crisis whereby female victims were unfairly treated by males. Some of them were employed as police officers in order to assist female victims."*

Participant No. 4 in Atteridgeville adds that *"Women who already gave birth were not taken in the SAPS and women were also disadvantaged because of their height."* Participant No. 5 in Pretoria Central indicated that *"Because of the stereotype concept that we as women cannot perform as our male counterparts makes women to divert from operational to other units/divisions."*

It appears that women in policing were mainly excluded from operational policing and were generally assigned to perform clerical and administrative duties. Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 260) concur that women joined the SAP for administrative duties and not for patrol duties with the purpose of reducing the lack of manpower and let more men to execute patrols.

It shows that the fundamentals of the past practices are still present in current appointment of policewomen in the South African Police Service, which create a negativity on the achievement of gender equality in the SAPS.

4.3.2 Recruitment process

Birzer and Robertson (2007: 182) define recruitment as the process of identifying, locating, and attracting proficient candidates who have the minimum qualifications to be appropriate for the selection process.

On the other hand, the selection process involves subjecting police applicants to what amounts to a difficult testing protocol. They further define selection as an exercise that desire to estimate which applicants will be successful if employed and to get rid of the unqualified candidates.

According to the majority of these participants, the physical assessment done at the recruitment centres is not easy for policewomen. Participant No. 1 in Atteridgeville indicated that *"The physical assessment done at the college is not easy for women to pass. That is why when you arrive at the station, you find that the number of female recruits is less and for males is more. New recruits are posted at operational policing."* Participant No. 4 in Atteridgeville indicated that *"Before the selection of an intake, they usually take you for physical fitness, women who had children through scissors will have a challenge in passing the physical assessment because of their operations and as a result there will be fewer females who will pass the assessment and that will lower the number of women in operational policing."* Participant No. 1 in Pretoria Central said that *"When policewomen apply for work in the SAPS, they apply in large numbers, they also pass psychometric test in large numbers and the problem comes when they go for physical assessment."*

"We ladies fail the physical assessment because most of us come to the police already as mothers who already gave birth by operations and that makes us not to be as strong as males."

Participant No. 5 in Atteridgeville said: *"that the number of women is low in operational policing due to how the recruitment is done. The punching bag is heavy for women and if you drop it you fail and automatically you are disqualified."*

When women graduate from the college, their number is low due to the fact that they were disqualified during recruitment.”

“All new recruits are sent to operational policing after pass out or completion of their basic training at the SAPS training colleges.” The physical assessment includes: a beeper test of 25 laps for women and 30 laps for men, carry a 75kg punching bag which they must run a distance of 200m in 4 seconds and 3 seconds for males. They are not expected to drop the punching bag because they will be disqualified if they drop it.

Most women fail to complete the 25 laps beeper test, drop the punching bag and that lowers the number of female police recruits before they can even undergo the basic training at the police colleges. This statement concurs with the findings of the study by Lonsway, et al., (2002) who indicated that the entrance of women into policing may be obstructed by the selection processes that emphasise physical power and agility even though some of the physical tests used in the selection of new recruits are not reflective of the capability required to do the job.

It also concurs with the study by Roberson (2007: 252) who indicated that most of these entry criteria test physical qualities, which provide males with a biological benefit; as a result, many female candidates are eliminated in the course of the recruitment process. Robinson (2013: 5) also shows that biased selection processes that favour men and disregard women, were identified as thwarting the entrance of women into policing for many of years.

4.3.3 Training at the police colleges

Training is one of the most important functions of the police organisations which is next to the recruitment and selection of police officers: New police trainees learn the skills of policing through (Birzer and Roberson, 2007: 217). When asked about the reasons why women are under-represented in operational policing; Participant No. 1 in indicated that *“It started at the college itself, the training is very tough. Female officers do not have too much strength that is why most of the time they are under-represented in operational policing.”*

Participant No. 2 in Sunnyside indicated that *“Training received at the police academy makes the number of female police officers to be low in operational policing because when you fail an obstacle course or when you get injured in a way that you do not recover in a month, you are sent home, and most policewomen are the ones who get injured.”*

Since operational policing is the core of the SAPS, from training you are sent to the police station to do operational policing and you find that the number of policewomen is lower than that of policemen.”

It was found that during training at the police colleges, most policewomen fail physical fitness which is conducted on a daily basis as part of training. The physical fitness includes 2.4 km run, obstacle course, skill and fear, etc.

Majority of women fail the physical fitness or get injured when they perform the physical fitness and they are sent back home. Those who get injured will get an opportunity to return to the college after 12 months with the next intake and those who failed are dismissed for good. Consequently, the number of policewomen is lessened owing to the fact that after completion of training at the police colleges, all police officers are sent to the police stations to perform operational policing and you find that the number of policewomen is already lower than that of male police officers.

4.3.4 Hours performed in operational policing

Uniform (visible police) members working operational policing work twelve-hour shifts, four days a week, two-day shifts and two-night shifts then they get four days off. Members of the detective services at the police stations are also operational but they work eight-hour shifts and they are placed on standby duties whereby they are called upon to attend to crime scenes after hours. Participant No. 2 in Pretoria Central said that *“The working hours are too long; we are working twelve hours and some women opt to work eight-hour shift.”* Participant No. 3 in Atteridgeville indicated that *“Some women leave operational policing and work administration duties because of the long hours performed in operational policing.”* Participant No. 5 in Atteridgeville indicated that *“Most women do not like working long hours, they prefer to work eight hours.”*

Participant No. 2 in Sunnyside said: *“Most women prefer to work office hours because office hours are eight hours and operational policing is twelve hours.”* This was supported by Kim and Merlo (2010: 4) who indicated that most women refrain from jobs that need prolonged working hours. Instead, they prefer to pursue and remain in positions where they will come across less aggression.

Participant No. 3 in Sunnyside indicated that *“Women fear to be exposed to danger of working long hours, twelve-hour shift as shift worker. Operational policing hours are sometimes even more than twelve hours, about 14 to 15 hours.”*

Kim and Merlo (2010: 2) support that policing includes unfamiliar working hours as well as shift work and these are perceived as more of a barrier for women to work operational policing.

Participant No. 4 in Pretoria West indicated that *“women need a comfort zone; they do not want to work night shifts.”* This was supported by Participant No. 5 in Pretoria West who indicated that *“Women are fragile, in my shift I have a pregnant lady who sometimes tell me that sergeant, I want to rest, whereas pregnancy is not an illness. Others when having menstrual pains, they cry and want to knock off before the shift can end.”*

4.3.5 Fear to die

It is found that some policewomen think it is not safe to participate in operational policing because their lives will be in danger. Because of high crime rate many women do not apply for work in the SAPS because they fear for their lives. It is risky and you can die at any time when working within operational policing. Kim and Merlo (2010: 4) support that the work of the police is perceived as being likely to cause harm or injury and that working with criminals is prevalent in the police environment. The demands of having to work on the field and the perception of possible risk discourage policewomen to apply for work in the police and do operational policing.

4.3.6 Family issues

It appears that most women choose to work office hours than operational policing in order to have enough time with their families. This statement was supported by Participant No. 5 in Pretoria West who indicated that *“as operational workers, we work 12 to 15 hours and some women request to go and work office hours saying that they do not have enough time of staying with their families when working operational policing.”* Graue et al., (2015: 56) also support that working from 7am to 5pm is feasible, but working shifts is just not attractive for women who have family responsibilities.

Participant No.2 in Pretoria Central supported that *“Operational policing is for women who are not married and who do not have challenges with their kids. She further indicated that if you are married, your husband will not allow you to work night shift.”*

Participant No.2 in Sunnyside added that *“Most women refrain from working operational policing owing to the fact that they have to fetch their kids from school, and they must help their kids with homework.”* This statement was supported by Sausa and Gauthier (2008: 7), that the women' load of taking care of the family and holding down an occupation has created many battles, mostly given the planning demands and randomness of police work since they are still considered the main caregivers and managers of their families in most households.

Participant No. 5 in Sunnyside also indicated that *“Most policewomen get married at an early age and they just want enough time to look after their families.”* Participant No. 4 in Pretoria West supports that *“some women complain that they have husbands and children to look after, they cannot work after hours, and weekends.”*

This statement was supported by Dick and Jankowicz (2001: 194) who indicated that “real” women put their household before their work. Basically, such discourses corroborate the decision of a woman to leave the police organisation to have a family.

Participant No.3 in Atteridgeville indicated that *“It is awkward to work operational policing as a single parent as you have to look after your kids.”* This statement supports the study conducted by Sabat and Mishra (2010: 367) who indicated that although the circumstances of shift work and overtime are considered to apply to all police officers equally in the policing occupation, they are not necessarily reasonable to those who have family or career commitments.

This study shows that the commitments that these women have at home make them to prefer working administration duties not operational. This statement is supported by the study of Dick and Jankowicz (2001) who indicated that many officers who partaken in their study indicated that the requirements of policing are not eagerly put together with parenting and specifically, motherhood. Therefore, women themselves keenly choose not to stay in the organisation after having children, and this makes it difficult for the service to achieve satisfactory representation of women above the constable rank in operational policing.

4.3.7 Low salary

Participant No. 3 in Atteridgeville indicated that *“Because of the low salary earned in the lower levels/ranks in the SAPS, even if you wish to work operational policing, you are unable to because you cannot be able to afford to pay a person to look after your kids.”* It appears that salary earned in the SAPS is not meeting the basic living needs of junior police members working operational policing.

4.4 THE VALUE OF POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING

The following discussion presents the findings on the value of women in operational policing:

4.4.1 Perform duties that males cannot perform

When the participants were asked about their importance in operational policing, a very large number of agreements amongst them was that policewomen can perform duties that policemen cannot perform, and the following were expressed:

- Policewomen know how to handle rape victims. They can take the rape victims to the doctor and assist them with procedures that males cannot do. Most males do not want to assist rape victims, they like to judge them, put the blame on them and traumatise them further. Policewomen can deal with complaints that males fail to deal with, e.g. rape, domestic violence and complaints involving children. Participant No. 3 in Sunnyside police station indicated that *“one night our Shift Commander called all the females of our shift in a meeting and left male in the Client Service Centre.”*

While busy in that meeting one of the males who were left in the Client Service Centre came in and told the shift commander that there was someone in the Client Service Centre who wanted to open a rape case.” It is clear that policemen regard rape cases as females’ duties.

Participant No. 5 in Pretoria West adds that *“as female police we relate well with the rape victims, we give them a shoulder to cry on. They are free to express themselves unlike when they are with our male colleagues.”* Participant No. 4 in Pretoria West concurs that *“women who experienced rape do not feel comfortable speaking to a man, children that are traumatised need a mother that they can talk to.”*

Participant no. 3 in Pretoria West adds that *“in a case of a victim who is a child, as a woman you can play with that child so that he/she can open up to you.”*

- Policewomen are also very helpful when coming to searching of arrested female suspects since a male is not allowed to search a female and vice versa. This statement supports the study by Ehiemua (2014: 19) who indicated that most tasks performed by policewomen are those that their male colleagues cannot do.

These include conducting a search on the body of female suspects, accompanying female victims who experienced sexual assault to assess injuries and writing down a statement.

- Female police officers have no problem with administration, e.g. writing the Occurrence Book, opening and registering of case dockets and certifying documents. Male police officers do not like administration they say is for women.

4.4.2 Communication skills

The participants in this study indicated that policewomen can calm down situations of violence without utilising force and the victims can listen to them than their male colleagues. The community usually understands policewomen because they are not harsh; they can explain a situation in a better way. The study of Franklin (2007: 4) also shows that women are generally enhanced communicators and are more likely to reduce and end a potentially tense situation through communication other than violence.

These participants further indicated that when policewomen go to schools to do campaigns against crime, the learners feel free when a policewoman is the one involved in disseminating that information. Learners can easily ask questions to policewomen. Policewomen can interact better with victims of the same gender.

Their communication skills are better than that of their male counterparts. This statement was supported by Participant No. 2 in Pretoria Central who indicated that *“There are no civil claims against female police officers because we are not using excessive force, we just communicate with the suspects.”* Participant No. 5 in Pretoria West added that *“We have good communication skills than our male counterparts.”*

4.4.3 Patient

Female police officers are naturally patient, empathetic and understanding compared to policemen. Ehiemua (2014: 20) supports that the natural characteristic of a policewoman is to be extra lenient and tolerant, while a policeman is prone to utilising vigorous mediation, which generally causes fierce fights with people.

The participants in this study also indicated that abused victims feel free to talk to a woman than a man. Policewomen can put themselves in the shoes of the victims. In case where a victim is a child, policewomen can play with that child so that the child can open up to her. They also show sympathy and passion when handling cases. Policewomen are often mothers; they know what is expected of them.

Female police officers can deal well with children suspects and with those who are victims of crime.

4.5 THE CHALLENGES FACING POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING IN THE COUNTRY

In the SAPS, there are different uniforms for different job descriptions, e.g. operational members at police station level must wear field uniform which comprises a blue shirt, blue trouser, blue baseball cap, grey socks, black boots, and a bullet proof vest. Name badges and rank insignia must always also be worn. The field uniform is for both men and women and there is no difference in this uniform except for the shirts, men shirts have two pockets on the front and female shirts are without pockets.

Detectives must wear formal clothes and must always look presentable. Men must always put on a tie and females must put on high heels when performing their duties.

4.5.1 Uniform/Dress Code

SAPS is very strict about its uniform for members employed as police officers. This uniform stays crucial to maintain a professional image of the SAPS, considering the work that is done by the SAPS. According to these participants, uniform worn by female police officers at operational environment is a real challenge for most of them. The pants make male police officers to harass them sexually, some will touch their bums and tell them how sexy they look. They further indicated that they are forced to wear the pants even if they are working in the Client Service Centre because they are operational.

The design of the pants is originally made for male police officials not for females. They are too big for some females. This supports the study by Oruta, Lidava and Gaunya (2016: 4) who indicate that female police officers may be discriminated by being issued with uniforms designed for males which do not fit correctly on the female body. The boots as well are too heavy and the belt is very hard is hurts females on the stomach especially those who gave birth through operation.

Female police officers are not allowed to wear any type of earrings while in uniform, except if they are very small gold ones. The colour of the hair must be black or brown and it must not be long. It must be tied with a black or brown hair band.

Detectives are always expected to be presentable when reporting for duty and their dress code is formal. Participant No. 4 in Atteridgeville indicated that the dress code pertaining to attending of crime scenes is a challenge. She further indicated that in her policing precinct, there are informal settlements where detectives must climb mountains when attending to crime scenes. As a result, it is a challenge for female police detectives to climb mountains wearing high heels and in formal clothing.

4.5.2 Bulletproof vest

It appears that the bullet proof vest worn by operational members in the police is a challenge to policewomen. The following participants support this statement:

Participant No. 1 in Pretoria Central indicated that *“the bullet proofs vests are not user friendly for policewomen because some of the women have operations and wearing a bullet proof for 12 hours is not easy as the bullet proof is heavy.”*

Participant No.1 in Sunnyside said that *“the bullet proof vest is not comfortable at all. As a woman, you are supposed to work operational duties wearing a bullet proof and it is not comfortable for the breast and abdomen.”*

Participant No. 4 in Sunnyside Police Station indicated that: *“Sunnyside is dominated by flats buildings of about 12 floors high and female police officers have to wear their heavy bullet proofs for 12 hours, carrying a pistol and a rifle going to the 11th floor on a daily basis or hourly. The buildings have no lifts, at the degree of 30 degrees heat and female police officers must work under those conditions.”*

It is found that some male commanders force pregnant policewomen to wear bullet proof vests and post them on the patrol vehicles while pregnant. This statement supports the study of Shelley, Morabito and Tobin-Gurley (2011: 359). The latter found that some pregnant police officers have been deprived of opportunities of working limited or light duty functions, commonly offered to injured or disabled officers, such as non-patrol related work at a desk, taking phone reports.

They are not allowed to perform these duties even after their pregnancies developed to the point where wearing a police officer issued bulletproof vest and reaching for their guns become difficult or impossible. Some female officers are left with the difficult decision of preceding childbirth for advancement or giving up their careers to have a family.

4.5.3 Lack of acceptance by male colleagues

These participants indicated that most males refuse to work with their women counterparts. They say women are fragile; they are not strong enough to control violent situations. Male police officers do not feel safe to work with female police officers in operational policing. They say policewomen put their lives in danger, they do not feel protected with female colleagues.

This statement supports the study by Dantzker and Kubin (1998: 21) which also indicated that many male police officers believe that women do not have the physical strength required in dangerous and violent situations, as a result they cannot handle violent situations and perform patrol duties like men. But this differs with the study by Bell (1982: 119) which argues that if violence were to occur, well-trained officers regardless of their sex would handle it to the best of their ability. Those who are worried that women may be injured must understand that this occurs to men as well.

As policemen rely on one another for protection when performing their duties, it was found in this study that policemen feel like they are working alone when they are posted with policewomen. They do not feel safe or protected when working with policewomen. As a result, they call for back up when faced with complaints which involves violence. Feinman (1994); Heidensohn; (1992) and Martin (1990) assert that male police officers trust each other for protection and believe that they must protect female officers and that female officers do not provide adequate protection for them.

This supports the study conducted by Shelley et al., (2011: 356) which indicated that individual male police officers eliminated female police officers in aspects of police work where mutual support and incorporation were crucial. According to Shelley et al., (2011: 356), police officers must depend on one another to respond to situations that involve violence since police work is a dangerous job.

Participant No.5 in Pretoria West also supports that *“my Commander is a male and as I am his second in charge. When he is on leave, I must act on his behalf and my male colleagues like to tell me what to do. When I post them as male and female together, they tell me that I must post them only as males and post females in the CSC because women are fragile. They do not feel safe to work with females at night; they say it is as if they are working alone.”*

This was corroborated by Participant No. 3 in Sunnyside, who indicated that *“If a female constable is posted as the driver and a male as the crew, males do not want women to drive them to Alpha Complaints (Complaints in progress). They feel uncomfortable working with women.”* She further indicated that they will tell you straight that *“If nka bereka le wena o tla mpolaisa ka batho.”* Sepedi language translated as: *“If I could work with you, you will get me killed.”*

Participant No.2 in Atteridgeville also concurs that *“some of the male police officers refuse totally to work together with female police officers, they say they rather work in the CSC, cells or office hours than working with them.”* Graue et al., (2016: 54) also indicated that male officers tend to believe that they cannot depend on female officers as they are unable to handle violent encounters, are poor drivers, and a myriad of other negative qualities that make them unfit for police work.

Participant No. 5 in Sunnyside indicated that *“Men feel challenged when a woman has a top position, they disrespect her, and they do not see anything wrong with that. Policemen are bully towards policewomen and their word is final.”* This statement was supported by Participant No. 5 in Pretoria West who indicated that whilst acting on behalf of her male Commander, *“a male captain who had an argument with a complaint vehicle somewhere in a sector, came to the CSC and asked to speak to the Shift Commander. One of my colleagues pointed me as a sergeant and said to the male captain that I am the commander; that captain said he does not want to speak to a Sergeant he wants to speak to the commander.”*

As the acting commander of the day that sergeant felt offended and indicated to the captain that she did not like the way she talked in front of her juniors and the captain apologised. This shows that policewomen are really undermined by policemen. The participants in this study emphasised that policewomen are less recognised in the organisation.

The researcher conducted some of the interviews at night in Atteridgeville, Pretoria Central and Pretoria West. She observed that there were no male police officers posted in the CSC at these police stations, only female police officers were there.

The researcher found two male commanders in their offices at Atteridgeville and Pretoria West, and in Pretoria Central a female Commander was found. At Pretoria West, the researcher confronted a male commander at the rank of a captain and asked him why there are only female police officers in the CSC.

The commander told the researcher that he would never post a female on the patrol vehicle at night because he does not want to put the males' lives in danger. He also indicated that policewomen tend to chat on their cell phones or sleep in the patrol vehicles when posted on the streets. The researcher saw male police officers at some of the above-mentioned police stations when they brought suspects.

At Sunnyside, all interviews were conducted during the day but there were only female police officers present in the whole station. All males were posted on the patrol vehicles.

It appears that the SAPS have a common practice of assigning policewomen to specific tasks based on their gender. The participants in Pretoria Central supported this when emphasising that although their commander is a female, they are not posted to attend to complaints in the sectors. They are only exposed to attend to the complaints coming to the CSC.

The study conducted by Oruta, et al. (2016: 9) also shows that the imbalanced treatment of female officers when it comes to distribution of duties was one of the challenges that most officers highlighted. The survey found out that senior officers preferred male officers in deployment of duties. Participant No. 2 in Pretoria Central concurs that *"It is been two years now that my commander posted me to attend to the incoming complaints only. This is a real challenge for me because it is denying me the opportunity to prevent crime outside the CSC and that limits promotion opportunities for me."*

My Commander as a female does not have trust in females that they can do males job." This was corroborated by the study conducted by Newham et al, (2006: 37) where about half of the male participants made statements which revealed that they believed that females did not make good police officers. Generally, they thought that women should not be involved in operational work but be confined in the Client Service Centre and help with administration at the police station.

This study revealed that gender equality is not achieved in operational policing as women are not deployed in all areas as their male colleagues. It is also clear that, often policewomen are not given the option to choose whether they prefer to work operational policing tasks of vehicle patrols or not. In turn, this makes some of them feel undermined by their commanders or male colleagues. The gendered organisation theory provides an appropriate framework for women who are not deployed in all areas as their male colleagues. This makes the number of women to be low in operational policing and in higher ranks.

4.5.4 Male colleagues refuse to take instructions from female colleagues

This study revealed that policemen are so negative towards women in a way that they do not want to take instructions from female commanders. The statements of the following participants support this assertion:

Participant No.4 in Pretoria Central said: *“My experience as a captain in the SAPS, I gave my male colleague, who was my junior, a job (case docket to investigate), and he refused to take my instruction. He humiliated me in front of my commander, who was also a male officer. I took the matter further and during trial he won the case because the matter was handled by males.”*

Participant No. 2 in Pretoria West emphasised that *“If you are a policewoman at the station, if you give an instruction to male colleagues, they do not do it immediately, and they do not take you serious because you are a woman. You have to raise your voice for them to hear you.”*

She further indicated that *“it is hard to give instructions to non-commissioned police being a non-commissioned officer yourself, especially males. They will always remind you that you are on the same level as them. In operational policing, there are targets to be reached on a monthly basis, e.g. arrests. If you are an acting commander as a female, male members ignore the targets to be reached and crime goes up and affects everyone.”*

4.5.5 Male colleagues falling in love with junior policewomen

The participants in this research indicated that male police officers take advantage of female police officers by being intimate with them.

They further indicated that when a junior policewoman becomes involved with a senior policeman, they regard the rank of the senior male officer as theirs and that makes them to defy the senior policewomen's instruction.

4.5.6 Lack of promotions for women in operational policing

It appears that there is no growth for junior policewomen employed at operational environment at the police stations and women are not given an opportunity to lead shifts. This was supported by Participant No 4 in Pretoria Central who indicated that *“in the detective service there are no promotions for policewomen all over the country.”*

“Majority of detective services are led by policemen and only few detective services are led by policewomen. As a female detective, you are not allowed to divert to any other component or unit where you can be promoted. Others are on a rank of Warrant Officer for 20 years without being promoted and majority of them goes on pension in a Warrant Officer rank the highest.”

The participants in Atteridgeville SAPS assert that there is no female commissioned officer who is a shift commander. There is only female officer on the rank of a Lieutenant Colonel who is a head of the detectives. All shift commanders are males, women are not given a chance to lead shifts.

When a male commander is absent/on leave, they put a male to act on his behalf, they never put a woman because all of them are on lower ranks. This statement supports the study by Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 260) who stated that women were prohibited from engaging in commanding positions where they would oversee men. They were limited to being in charge of only women in administrative positions (Marks, 2005: 218).

The participants in Pretoria West indicated that they do not have women in higher ranks working operational policing. All shift commanders are males. They further indicated that the highest rank for females in the Shifts is Sergeant. Marks (2005: 217) supports that policewomen were crowded in the lowest ranks of the force.

In Sunnyside, the participants expressed that SAPS is still a male-dominated organisation because males are promoted more than females. Participant No. 3 in Sunnyside indicated that *“promotions are slow in operational policing, there are women who are 12-13 years in the rank of constables and that is very demoralising. Clerks are promoted every two years because they can strike and as a police officer you cannot strike.”* Participant No. 5 in Sunnyside adds that *“women are discouraged because they can see that there are no promotions in operational policing as they see a commissioned officer staying long in the rank.”*

The study of Wilcock (2017: 8) concurs that barriers for women trying to climb the career ladder in the organisation is supposedly created by the shortage of female role models in higher supervisory ranks. They feel discouraged from attempting to progress since they have no one to inspire or guide them. Consequently, they are left at lower ranks and issues related to male dominance are perpetuated. Senior members must be role models to the new constables, but it appears that these new constables feel discouraged when they see a senior member staying long in a rank and decides to apply somewhere else.

This statement is supported by the study of Osterlind and Haake (2010: 5) who indicated that shortage of female role models at leadership levels causes policewomen to be extremely less likely to have an interest in continuing a profession within the police.

Participant No. 5 in Sunnyside further adds that *“even if these members are willing to stay, the SAPS is not recognising them. Although women are responsible for doing enough, their work is not recognised.”* SAPS (2019/2024: 30) supports that very few women are recognised for their effort and commitment of transforming the SAPS.

This study revealed that males think that women are sleeping their way up. This was supported by Participant No. 4 in Atteridgeville indicated that *“it is a norm for the male counterparts that if a female police officer gets promoted, they say that female officer was sleeping around (had sexual intercourse with top management) that is why she got the rank. And some old male police officers will threaten you that they will never salute you, they will tell you that they joined the organisation before you.”*

It appears that if a policewoman tries to grow in the ranks, she is treated in a negative way by her male counterparts. This was supported by Participant No. 5 in Pretoria Central who indicated that *“I witnessed an incident where a female police officer was promoted to a rank of a captain. The male members stabbed her vehicle tyres to unable her to go home. They also scratched her vehicle with vehicle keys all over telling her why she was promoted before them. The captain reported the matter to the male commander, and nothing was done about those members until that female captain got a transfer and moved to another station.”*

Shelley, Morabito and Tobin-Gurley (2011: 354) also add that such nature of intimidating working environment indicates to women that the police organisation is not 'their place', but rather a place owned by hostile male officers with no desire to change their conduct. It is clear that women employed in operational policing face barriers which discourage them from applying for promotions and that keep them in the lower ranks of the police.

4.5.7 Undermined by community

These participants indicated that the community that they are serving still believe that the police officers must be violent. They do not trust a female officer in arresting them. Participant No. 5 in Pretoria West indicated that a member of the public once told her that, *"that is why you are not promoted because you do not know your work."*

"Members of the public like to tell us how to do our job, they think men are the only ones who are police officers because we women are fragile."

The participants in this research indicated that some community members undermine policewomen because of their gender. They do not want to take their advice; they only want policemen to advise them.

When attending domestic violence complaints where a woman is a victim, some of them will ask policewomen if they are married and if not, they will not allow them to help them. The community is aggressive to policewomen. These participants further indicated that some male suspects are taking advantage of policewomen working operational, they swear at them and assault them.

4.5.8 Gender discrimination

Garcia (2003: 332) indicates that it was not easy for other men to agree to the incorporation of women in policing; it was difficult because they see some policing tasks as inappropriate for women and that women are not capable of achieving in some situations.

The participants in this study supported this statement when indicating that male police officers undermine them when effecting arrest. When they are posted with female police officers, they prefer to call for back up of another male police officer to effect an arrest.

These participants also indicated that because female police officers are few in operational policing, males have permanent posts of being posted as drivers of the state vehicles. They do not rotate with their female colleagues. Policewomen are only posted on the vehicles when their male colleagues are not on duty.

If it happens that a male police officer is late when the commander is posting and a female police officer is posted as the driver or crew of a state vehicle as soon as that male police report for duty, that female will be reposted and be called to the Client Service Centre.

Male police officers do not allow female police officers to drive state vehicles for them. Males always want to take charge; a woman's opinion does not matter to them. This study also revealed that policemen irrespective of rank undermine policewomen. This statement is supported by Participant No 2 in Pretoria Central who indicated that *"Most of the women in the SAPS are males and they have that cultural thing of undermining women. In our culture the man is the head of the house and that is also being practiced/applied in the SAPS that a woman cannot be a leader."* Participant No.1 in Pretoria West added that *"they undermine women, they think that we cannot be able to do what men do."*

4.5.9 Attending crime scenes

This study indicated that the detectives work standby duties and attend crime scenes after hours. According to Participant No. 4, in Atteridgeville, most of the crime scenes happen at night and a female police officer attends a crime scene alone at night, and it is not safe for them. They are scared that the criminals might follow them and ambush them.

4.5.10 Toilets

Participant No. 5 in Sunnyside indicated that for hygienic reasons, it is a challenge to post women on patrols because there are no toilets for them in the field. They are supposed to come to the police station when they want to use the toilets and that is time consuming. This concurs with the study of Parvin (2017:38), which indicates that females need additional toilets or rest rooms during long day hours and these types of facilities are not available in every duty area.

The male member can use the toilets in shops or houses nearer to the duty area, but it is not easy for the females to go into those places. For this reason, it sometimes looks inhumane to deploy the females in those places.

4.6 AN APPROACH TO ATTRACT AND SUSTAIN POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING IN THE COUNTRY

4.6.1 Promotions

In Atteridgeville, the participants indicated that policewomen spend more years on the same rank. If promoted, policewomen can be motivated and attract people who want to become police officers. Participants in Pretoria Central indicated that if the organisation can put more female commanders in charge, they could be able to recruit more females into the organisation.

The organisation must also try to balance promotions like they promote policemen so that policewomen can become role models to the coming generation. Policewomen must be promoted every five years because clerks are promoted every two years. Promotions must accommodate policewomen in operational policing. The participants in Sunnyside indicated that promotions are slow for policewomen in operational policing.

The organisation must give promotion opportunities to women to make them feel superior because at the moment they feel inferior because they are dominated by males from the Station Commander, Branch Commander, Visible policing Commander, they are all males.

Participant No. 5 in Sunnyside indicated that *“it is very much discouraging to be in the same rank for long. I am 14 years in the same rank of a captain. If the new constables see that they become discouraged and divert from operational policing to support environment.”*

Participant No. 3 in Sunnyside emphasised that a woman must be put in charge because she worked in a cluster of seven stations before coming to Sunnyside. In all those seven stations, there was only one female police captain who was in charge. In addition, her experience in Sunnyside is that out of four shifts there is only one female lieutenant colonel who is in charge, all other three shifts are led by males.

In Pretoria West, the participants indicated that the organisation must allow women to lead and explore those top positions. Women must be given higher ranks so that they can exercise their knowledge and wisdom and show their capabilities. These participants indicated that in their police station, shift commanders are only males.

They further indicated that these shift commanders are all on the captain rank and that makes women to look as if they are incapable of doing the job. As a result, women who are not police officers become reluctant to join the police because policewomen working operational are always under males.

4.6.2 Incentives/Compensation

Participant No.4 in Sunnyside indicated that *“the management of the SAPS must give incentives and promotion opportunities to the SAPS women, to motivate them to be in operational policing.”* Participant No. 2 in Pretoria West indicated that the organisation must compensate junior policewomen when put in charge (acting commander).

4.6.3 Change the uniform and the make of the bulletproof vest

Participant No.3 in Atteridgeville indicated that *“the pants that are worn by policewomen in operational must be changed, women must also be afforded a chance to wear skirts when working in the CSC.”* Participant No. 1 in Pretoria Central adds *“that the made of the pants, boots and belt must be changed.”*

Participant No. 1 in Sunnyside indicated that *the organisation must consider making a comfortable bullet proof for policewomen. The made of the bulletproof vest must be less heavy.* Participant No .4 in Sunnyside add that *“If they can reduce the heavy weight of bulletproof vests especially for female officers that will make them to be attracted to operational policing.”*

4.6.4 Recognise qualifications

Participant No. 2 in Pretoria West indicated that *“the qualifications in the SAPS must be recognised so that policewomen can be promoted.”* This statement was supported by Participant No.5 in Pretoria Central who indicated that *“police women with qualifications must also be promoted like their male counterparts.”*

Participant No. 4 in Atteridgeville adds that *“the organisation must go back to basics like before 1994, where a constable with qualifications was legible to promotion after two years and those without qualifications were automatically promoted after four years.”*

4.6.5 Empower policewomen

Participant No. 5 in Atteridgeville indicated *“that the organisation must empower women academically and put them in charge.”* Participant No. 2 in Pretoria Central asserts *that if they can put more female commanders than males, they can be able to recruit other females to join the organisation.”* Participant No. 5 in Sunnyside indicated that *“the organisation must develop policewomen by sending them to courses and giving them bursaries to study.”*

4.6.6 Change the recruitment strategy

Participant No.2 in Atteridgeville indicated *“that the recruitment strategy must change because it is failing most policewomen and it reduces the number of policewomen in operational policing.”* Participant No.1 in Pretoria Central adds that *“the organisation must recruit more policewomen in the SAPS so that there can be more women in operational policing.”*

4.6.7 Fair treatment

Participant No.5 in Pretoria Central indicated that *“the organisation must listen to policewomen when they are complaining about their male counterparts.”* She further indicated that *“policewomen must be treated fairly as their male counterparts.”* This was supported by Participant No.5 in Atteridgeville who indicated that *“the organisation must treat policewomen the same way they are treating the male police officers.”*

4.6.8 Physical fitness at training colleges must change

Participant No. 2 in Sunnyside indicated that *“Physical fitness at the training academies must change to lower the number of injuries especially for policewomen. The organisation must stop chasing away injured female students at the training academies.”*

4.7 STRATEGIES TO ATTRACT AND IMPROVE THE REPRESENTATION OF POLICEWOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING

The participants were also asked, “Which strategies can improve employment opportunities and the representation of policewomen in operational policing?” Some of the strategies expressed by these participants are as follows:

- If a woman is pregnant, she must be allowed to wear comfortable clothes, not to be forced to wear police uniform and the bulletproof vest. She must not be posted on the patrol vehicle and if possible, stop working shifts.
- There must be women network programmes to empower women in operational policing.
- The empowerment of women can improve employment opportunities for women.
- The organisation must create promotion opportunities for female police officers and stop overlooking at them.

The strategy used to promote admin clerks must also apply to policewomen working operational policing. Clerks stay two years in a rank but policewoman working in operational policing stay 13-15 years before they can be promoted. If more policewomen can be promoted like males and admin workers and be in charge of the shift/reliefs that can improve employment opportunities and the representation of policewomen in policing.

- Women who are long within the organisation must be promoted before the new ones. If ever they can give women opportunity to be involved in operations alone, maybe, that can enhance the image of policewomen in the service and maybe women can be considered.
- The organisation must make sure that policewomen must work seven years and be considered for promotions because we have more constables with more than 12 years and above. In most of the stations, most commanders are males. Women must be empowered to become commanders.
- Lessen the physical assessment criteria when recruiting females. Appoint a mentor to a new female constable when performing her duties.

Do away with female officers looking like men with short hair. Policewomen must have long hair, wear make-up, put on lipstick, and look beautiful.

- Employ more women, give them a pulpit to lead so that they can prove themselves that they can represent the SAPS.

Women must be well-represented in operational policing such as CSC, crime prevention, detectives, and other units in the SAPS that are dominated by males.

- If the female detective commander who is on standby can be accompanied by a male member when visiting crime scenes after hours because for a woman, it is very dangerous to wake up at 3am attending a crime scene alone. The dress code of all the detectives working operational policing needs to be changed.
- If they can let the women to be the drivers of the patrol /complaint vehicle and not to always be the crews.

4.8 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

This study shows that policewomen are under-represented in operational policing because of various factors including:

1. Heavy recruitment process of the police field – It appears that the physical assessment used to screen the correct candidates to be employed in the SAPS does not favour women. Roberson (2007: 252) also found that unnecessary entrance standards is another contributing factor to underrepresentation of policewomen in the organisation. During the recruitment phase, most women are weeded out as they are unable to pass the physical assessment.

For a woman to run and complete 25 laps within a specified time, carry a 75kg punching bag and run around with it without dropping it, is not easy and that blocks them from entering the police organisation.

Lonsway et al., (2002: 10) concurs that today's evaluations endure to block the entrance of highly qualified women from into policing while discriminatory height requirements were finally removed in the early 1970s. This study indicates that physical strength is an important requirement for enlistment in the SAPS.

The participants indicated that women are failing the physical fitness because they are not physically strong and some of them apply for policing already as mothers (already gave birth).

2. Heavy training at the police academies/colleges – After recruitment, the recruits are taken for Basic Training at different police academies/colleges. At this stage, they are now referred to as police trainees whereby they are trained academically with policing and law, street survival (use of firearms), drill (salutes and compliments) and physically training (skill and fear, obstacle course and daily 2.4km run). They are expected to be physically fit as a result there is no time for walking during training, they must run from one point to the other.

During physical fitness most female trainees get injured and if they get seriously injured, they are sent back home. Police trainees cannot be able to carry on with the training if for example, they broke their legs/arms because they cannot not be able to be trained in firearms when they broke their arms or participate in the physical fitness because they cannot be declared competent if they did not complete some of the training.

Police recruits are expected to meet harsh physical standards when training at police academies for public safety and for the safety of fellow members as criminals will not be softer to policewomen when physical force is required.

3. Personal preferences – It appears that when women are deployed to police stations after training at the police colleges, they are normally not ready to execute for operational duties. It shows that they are not mentally and emotionally prepared for operational challenges as some of them prefer not to do operational duties or are afraid of operational tasks such as running after dangerous criminals.

Archbold and Schulz (2012: 695) also show that policewomen did not have any desire of being assigned same duties as those of policemen. This was supported by Appier (1998: 3) who indicated that according to these policewomen, men performed exceptionally well at certain police duties while women were best at performing other police duties.

This study also revealed that most policewomen do not like working long hours, weekends, holidays, or night shifts owing to family accountabilities. They prefer to work office hours because it gives them time to be with their families and can be able to help their kids with homework. This statement concurs with the study conducted by Parvin 2017: 39) where during interviewing of junior officers, two police couples were interviewed to assess how much accountabilities are shared by the male-female partners of a family working in the same employment. Both the couples acknowledged that it is the females who take care of the family members most of the time although their husbands work in the similar station.

This makes the female to think of choosing less significant duties which will make her to be less partaking in the job and provide more time to take care of her family. The female officers of lower ranks supported that this is the fundamental reason they preferred non-operational duties.

Operational members are always exposed to danger as they encounter hard-core criminals and police officers are killed on a daily basis. As a result, most policewomen fear for their lives because they are not as brave as their male counterparts.

4. Police management lack of trust in women capabilities to handle operational policing tasks – Parvin (2017: 37) also found that mainstream of senior police officers think that females are not very much proficient of dealing with antagonistic situations constructively. Sometimes, the management think that deploying female officers to the field level (operational environments) is not safe because they themselves need extra safety which needs extra resource and management.

There are four shifts in each targeted police station where members perform operational policing. Majority of shift commanders at the four targeted police stations are males.

This agrees with the study by Reynecke and Fourie (2001: 260) who indicated that women were also forbidden from dwelling in other positions of command where they would be giving the orders to men.

In this study it was revealed that all shift commanders irrespective of gender, post policewomen in the Client Service Centre to attend to the incoming complaints which do not expose them to any danger, such as to certify documents, open case dockets etc. This statement concurs with the study conducted by Newham et al., (2006: 37), who have also indicated that women should only be confined in the CSC and assist with administration and not get involved in operational functions.

This study revealed that the only time when you will find a policewoman posted on the patrol van is when there is shortage of manpower e.g. when policemen booked off sick, or when they are on leave or when they are on course.

This is supported by Ehiemua (2014: 19) who indicated that females in the police departments are often utilised as “spare tyres”.

5. Police culture – It appears that the history of policing for not employing women in the past has a great impact on the under-representation of women in operational policing. It was revealed that when women started to enter the police organisation, they were employed as clerks not as operational members.

They were engaged in the clerical duties because of the crisis whereby female victims were unfairly treated by policemen. This statement supports the study by Dempsey and Forst (2012: 181) which indicated that these policewomen were involved only in duties dealing with juveniles or female prisoners or clerical duties. Only a few were working as police officials to assist female victims and female prisoners, not to perform operational duties.

Muhammad, Abdullahi and Lawal (2016: 260) concur that at this beginning stage, women duties were narrowed and reserved to specific areas compatible with their gender and extremely discriminated from the obviously more manly and challenging roles of their male counterparts. Women who already gave birth were also not recruited in the SAPS and women were also disadvantaged because of their height.

Because of these reasons, policewomen are outnumbered by male officers in all ranks and there is still a shortage of policewomen in operational policing. These imbalances make policewomen not to be comfortable to work operational policing.

Because of the cliché notion that women cannot carry out police duties as their male counterparts makes women to divert from operational to other units/divisions.”

6. No growth for women in operational policing

This study revealed that SAPS is still not providing satisfactory development for junior members in operational policing especially women. Many participants in this research are constables and sergeants, the lowest rank in the SAPS, with nine to 17 years of experience.

This statement supports the study Slansky (2006: 1220), who stated that female officers are still crowded in the lower levels of the police service. This is miserable especially when the majority of members receive ten- and twenty-years' service medals and even 30 years' service medals while they are still in the lower ranks of constables, sergeants or warrant officers. This is clearly indicating that promotion in operational policing is still an enormous challenge. Women feel pain twice, if they think through their history in the SAPS and the present situation of career growth and promotions in operational policing.

In SAPS, posts are advertised on the intranet and members employed in operational policing do not have access to computers. The computers used at the stations to register dockets do not have intranet. As a result, most members do not hear about the advertised posts.

The researcher is a captain in the police who joined the police in 2005 and worked operational policing at Nigel SAPS. According to her experience, all the shift commanders at Nigel Police Station were male warrant officers, there were no female warrant officers or sergeants in the whole station working in operational policing.

She further indicates that all the members with whom she joined the SAPS in 2005, and who are working operational policing are still on the sergeant rank and they got their sergeant posts only in 2017. The researcher is a captain currently because she had to leave operational policing and applied for posts at other divisions within SAPS.

7. Policemen refuse to work with policewomen – This study revealed that some male counterparts refuse to be paired with female counterparts during deployment as they see them as dangers and intimidations. They classify some of their woman counterparts as fragile, and they allege that they will be putting their own lives and those of their counterparts in danger if they allow to be paired with women. They uphold that women are weak to handle violent situations.

This statement supports the study by Dantzker and Kubin (1998: 21). The latter found that many male police officers believe that women are not capable like men when controlling vehement circumstances and at executing patrol duties.

They argue that policewomen do not have the physical strength needed in precarious and vehement circumstances, but differ with the study by Bell (1982: 119) which argues that if violence was to occur, well-trained officers irrespective of their gender, would manage it to the best of their capability. Those who are worried that women may get injured must understand that both policewomen and policemen are equally vulnerable when dealing with violent crimes.

As policemen depend on one another for protection when carrying out their duties, it was found in this study that policemen feel like they are working alone when they are posted with policewomen.

They do not feel safe or protected when working with policewomen. As a result, they call for back up when faced with Alpha Complaints (Complaints in progress which involves violence).

This supports the study conducted by Shelley et al., (2011: 356) which indicated that individual officers have also marginalised female police officers in aspects of police work where mutual support and inclusion were crucial. According to Shelley et al., (2011: 356), police job is dangerous and police members are required to rely on each other when handling conflict and violence.

8. Junior policemen refuse to take instructions from senior female commanders – This study revealed that male constables tell the female shift commanders where they want to be posted and tell them that they do not want to work with policewomen. They also take over the duty of posting members if their shift commander is a female.

Female shift commanders feel offended and threatened by their junior male counterparts. This shows that policemen have no respect for policewomen, and they cannot let them to be in charge.

9. No exit strategy for women going on retirement – SAPS loses many experienced policewomen in operational policing through overwhelming reduction of its personnel owing to retirement. All female commissioned officers in the identified police stations are 50 years and older. These women are more experienced, and SAPS is going to lose them soon when they go on pension and it will reduce the number of women in operational policing.
10. No women empowerment programmes such as mentoring programmes within the SAPS to empower junior policewomen. Although the SAPS have many regulatory frameworks to promote transformation, there is a concern about the effective use of these regulatory frameworks. There is emptiness in terms of methodologies for monitoring the implementation of regulation pertaining to diversity management and transformation of the SAPS such as Employment Equity, a Job Access Strategy and a Gender Strategy to advance gender transformation in the SAPS.
11. Management trainings offered by SAPS do not accommodate all non-commissioned police officers (including women). The Basic Management Learning Programme only accommodates members on the rank of constable and sergeant and there is not much learnt about management leadership. As a result, there is no remarkable impact after the training. The Junior Management Learning Programme which has more information regarding leadership skills is only from the rank of Warrant Officer to a Captain rank. Furthermore, it is very rare for the police stations to send their members on courses. Most of the time, they complain about shortage of manpower when they are supposed to send members to courses.
12. No networking programmes for policewomen at the police station level whereby they share skills or discuss police matters especially the challenges affecting them as women. Women Network and Men for Change programmes are only available at head office levels but still they do not address problems affecting women in the organisation.

13. No evaluation programmes within the SAPS to focus at the representation of policewomen within the SAPS. As a result, it becomes difficult for SAPS Management to have an extensive knowledge of the problems facing policewomen and to designate gender equity or transformation of policewomen within the service.

There is current popular data regarding the presence and advancements of women in the SAPS but that is not occurring for women working in operational policing at the police stations. This data is about women at the divisions who are employed at support services.

4.9 SUMMARY

This study intended to explore the reasons for underrepresentation of South African policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane. To accomplish that, the scholar chose a sample of twenty female police officials from four targeted police stations in Tshwane. The outcomes of this study show that males continue to dominate in operational environments at police station level.

Policewomen are few policewomen in operational policing and majority of commanders are policemen. The study has also revealed that there are no female warrant officers working operational duties at the police stations that were targeted in Tshwane. This study found that developments in diversity and gender equality in the SAPS has a largely negative impact on several aspects of women's experiences of operational policing, with limited exceptions. The researcher discovered that although SAPS has been doing everything possible to redress historical stereotypes and patriarchy on the way to revolution, much still need to be done regarding women's employment of in high ranks at station level. If the existing challenges are not alleviated, SAPS will remain a male-dominated organisation.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the summary of the entire research study and the conclusion and recommendations made from the findings of this study. Chapter 1 provided an introduction, general orientation to the study, problem description, aim, and objectives of the research, research questions, significance of the research, description of concepts, demarcation of the research, layout of the dissertation and conclusion. Chapter 2 discussed the methodology and research design adopted in the research, data analysis, methods of confirming trustworthiness of the research, ethical considerations, limitations to the research, and conclusion to the chapter. An exploratory qualitative research design was utilised to allow the researcher to collect data directly from the individuals performing operational duties at the identified police stations in Tshwane. This strategy presented the scholar the chance to visit the selected police stations in Tshwane where the participants are attached to investigate the under-representation of policewomen in operational policing from the respondents' point of view. The four police stations were purposefully chosen because they do have female police who are faced by the problem of gender equality in their call of duty. Commissioned and non-commissioned policewomen employed at the identified police stations participated in this study. Further data was collected from different sources such as the SAPS Intranet for acts and regulations relating to gender equality and women in the police, internet sites, journal articles, relevant literature that assisted in affording the needed information to the problem in the study.

This research was guided by the National Instruction 1/2006 which specifies that a person who needs to conduct research in the police service should first apply and be granted permission. As a result, the researcher got permission from the SAPS Division: Police Strategic Management to conduct research in the identified police stations.

To ensure that the research participants' dignity, privacy and confidentiality were safeguarded in this study, the researcher left out the research participants' personal particulars of the on the interview guide and used pseudonyms whereby the research participant's real names were not used and instead quote numbers such as Participant No. 1 or Participant No. 2 were used.

The researcher in this study used a tape recorder during the interview sessions and made notes and repeated the questions to guarantee the correctness of obtaining data. In order to substantiate the interview data with other sources of information on the researched topic in this study, triangulation method was utilised which includes combining several methodologies to investigate the same phenomenon. The researcher used Tech's data analysis technique when analysing the findings of this research to gain in-depth understanding thereof.

Chapter 3 discussed the general review regarding the writings related to the research that were published locally and globally. The scholar utilised various sources to get hold of data on this research so as to comprehend the problem of the study and acquaint herself with the knowledge of other scholars, legislations and policies on women in policing.

Chapter 4 presented the findings of this research together with critical analysis and interpretation of the field data. This chapter was aimed to make sense out of the information that was collected in the course of the study.

Chapter 5 highlighted the findings, conclusions and recommendations made on this study.

5.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS

This study explored the reasons for under-representation of South African policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane. In order to do that, the following objectives were considered:

- To understand why policewomen are underrepresented in non-commissioned and commissioned positions in operational policing in Tshwane;
- To assess the importance of the South African policewomen in operational policing;
- To explore the challenges facing policewomen's participation in operational policing in the country;
- To identify an approach to attract and sustain policewomen in operational policing; and

- To suggest strategies to improve employment opportunities for and representation of women in the SAPS.

5.2.1 The findings on the targeted police stations are as follows:

Objective 1: The outcomes of this research show that the SAPS continues to have unsatisfactory representation of women in commissioned and non-commissioned positions in operational policing. Problems related to police culture, heavy recruitment processes of the police field, heavy training at police academies, personal preferences, and hours performed in operational policing, low salary, fear to die and family issues were expressed. The responses of the participants of the study also discovered that the culture of the police of not employing women in the past has a huge impact in the representation of women in operational policing. These problems were highlighted by the participants as to why women were under-represented in operational policing in the identified police stations in Tshwane. The study also discovered that most well-experienced policewomen in operational policing and in leadership positions (commissioned officers) in the identified police stations are over 50 years of age. As a result, SAPS lose a number of experienced police officials due to ageing, resignations, predominantly of women owing to the non-existence of a retention strategy.

Objective 2: It was also found out that the policewomen can deal with complaints that males fail to deal with, e.g. rape, domestic violence and complaints involving children, are very helpful when coming to searching of arrested female suspects, do not have a problem of administration, e.g. writing the Occurrence Book, opening and registering of case dockets and certifying documents. The women' role in the operational policing is of paramount importance in addressing the needs of society and safeguarding that the fundamental rights of women are not infringed and that they are protected at all times. As women, they are also playing a very critical role to restore their morale.

Objective 3: It was found that the challenges facing policewomen employed in operational policing at the identified police stations in Tshwane and also in the country include the uniform and bullet proof vests worn by women in operational fields, lack of acceptance by male colleagues, males refusing to take instructions from female commanders, lack of promotions for women in operational policing, Community undermining policewomen and gender discrimination.

Objective 4: With regard to an approach to attract and sustain women in operational policing, this study revealed that gender equality strategies have been limited to increasing the number of women representivity, as described in the affirmative action policy.

Although SAPS have many regulatory frameworks to promote transformation, there is a concern about the effective use of these regulatory frameworks. There is a vacuum in terms of approaches for monitoring the implementation of legislation relating to diversity management and transformation of SAPS to improve gender transformation in the SAPS.

Objective 5: The strategies to improve employment opportunities and the representation of women in the SAPS in operational policing in Tshwane include the support structure for pregnant women, women network programmes, women empowerment programmes, recruitment strategy, promotion policies, and mentorship programmes. This study has shown the non-existence of some of these strategies, such as women network programmes, women empowerment programmes and mentorship programmes. There is a need to develop and implement these non-existing strategies and review the existing ones.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

To address the underrepresentation of women in commissioned and non-commissioned positions in operational policing in Tshwane, the following recommendations are made:

- This study revealed that impartial representation of women in operational policing and management positions is still a challenge. The study shows that the organisation is still very uneven with the scale approving males.

In order to create a gender-balanced organisation and a competent work force that can meet the policing needs, it is recommended that the SAPS should empower women in operational policing with the appropriate knowledge, skills and competencies. This could be done through providing opportunities for career development and growth to successfully understand SAPS' dream of including and retaining women in operational policing, and in decision-making positions as well as providing the necessary support to all women in the SAPS.

Moreover, SAPS could develop methods to actively encourage the retention of women in operational policing, implement mentoring and coaching programmes and monitoring their mentorship, establish strategies to attract women to policing and develop and implement women's empowerment and preparatory programmes. Therefore, the development and review of a regulatory framework and strategies that promote gender equality are most important considering the history of policing in SA, and unjust treatment and discrimination experienced by women in South Africa under the previous government.

- The study discovered that heavy recruitment process and training at police academies accelerate the low number of women in operational policing. This study recommends that Personnel Management Division of the SAPS should take the recruitment drives for women more seriously than they are at the present time to make certain that the 50-50 gender target is attained by evaluating and revising the current recruitment and selection criteria. In addition, Battery tests should be enhanced in order to measure the physical capability, emotional intelligence, flexibility, ethical conduct, and honesty of entry level trainees. The organisation must stop chasing away injured female students at the training academies. Female applicants should be motivated to make policing their career of choice.

SAPS should also work towards developing a complete understanding of possible career fields and opportunities, factors that can influence a job's outlook at the police station level through "Take a child to school campaign. Level 5 Public Service Act women clerks who are employed in the support environment at the different Divisions of the SAPS should be recruited to undergo full basic training and become police officers and be transferred to operational policing after the completion of basic training.

- The study also revealed that after training at the police academies all recruited police officials are sent to operational policing at various police stations and on arrival, women do not like to work long hours performed in operational policing owing to family issues or fear to run after dangerous criminals. As a result, they opt to work office hours or take transfers to other components within the SAPS or apply outside the organisation and that reduce their number in operational policing.

Therefore, it is recommended that after the recruited female police officers complete their training programme, they must continue to work in the operational environments where they are posted. There must be a system in place to control that. This concurs with the study of Oruta, et al. (2016: 9), which suggested that the management of the organization should emphasise on laid down rules and regulations to ensure that the procedures are followed and policewomen's transfers are regulated.

- The study revealed that the participants hinted that the uniform worn, and bulletproof vests worn by female police officers at operational environment is a real challenge for most of them. It is recommended that uniform issues such as women trousers, boots and belts for operational policing should be reviewed as there are concerns in this regard. It is also crucial to take the various sizes and shapes of women into consideration when designing uniforms for them. There should be bulletproof vests accommodating various chest and breast sizes for women.
- The participants in this study emphasised that the existence of policewomen is less acknowledged in the organisation. Some women are working hard to transform the SAPS, but their contributions are disregarded, and this demoralises those women. It is recommended that the morale of women should be improved by means of Compensation and Incentives Rewards. SAPS should also organise provincial and national seminars for junior female members where female empowerment matters are given attention, to develop ways of improving the attitude and morale of women and enhance women's recognition in the organisation.
- The study revealed that there is no growth for junior members in operational policing especially women. This study recommends that there should be an analysis to identify the gaps, challenges and opportunities for career growth by assessing all the challenges that affect the growth of women in operational policing and design a plan of action to redress them.

Women should also be empowered with the relevant and appropriate knowledge, skills and competencies that will open up enormous possibilities and opportunities for their career development and growth in operational environments, and in management and leadership positions.

Approaches should be developed to monitor the promotions with regard to compliance with the quota systems and approved ratio per division in order to ensure adherence to the employment equity imperatives and increased representivity of women in operational policing. Post promotions for the progression of women in operational policing should also be prioritised. The participants in this study also recommend that the current promotion policy should be revised to accommodate women with qualifications. They further recommended that SAPS must go back to basics like before 1994, where a constable with qualifications was legible to promotion after two years and those without qualifications were automatically promoted after four years.

- The study also revealed that policemen refuse to work with policewomen owing to the patriarchal perception that women are weak and that their place is in the kitchen. This results in instilling a doubt and uncertainty about oneself in many women, resulting in women subjecting themselves to the authority of men.

This study recommends that training on taser gun should be introduced in Basic Training Learning Programme to enable policemen to have trust when posted with policewomen during patrols.

Women should also be developed in terms of self-actualisation, self-esteem, assertiveness, emotional intelligence, and ultimately maturity. Women should be trained and mentored to become capable and confident to fulfil the SAPS' mandate.

Since it goes without saying that SAPS is still one of many male-dominated organisations in South Africa, men in SAPS need to support and work together with their female counterparts to attain transformation and equality, and to partner in community outreach programmes. It is necessary for men and women to collaborate on gender-based issues to ensure better understanding of gender equality in society.

Extensive training should be provided, command and control, authority and resilience, as well as management and leadership should be obligatory while ensuring that training is provided by experienced trainers and facilitators. A

protective, secure, non-judgemental, and confidential platform should be created to address career, family and relationship issues.

- Losing experienced female members owing to retirement remains a challenge. It is recommended that SAPS should develop and implement exit plans for women going on retirement, encourage experienced policewomen to share their experience and acquired skills with the women who are still attempting to find experience in operational policing and promote a mentorship strategy that considers appointing experienced officials as full time mentors at least a year before retirement
- It was found that there are no networking programmes for policewomen at the police station level to share skills or discuss police matters especially the challenges affecting them as women. It is recommended that Women Network Programme should be developed to empower women in operational policing to provide a platform for addressing personal and professional difficulties, participating in nation building and social responsibility. It will also ensure that the empowerment of women became an essential part of development in SAPS.
- To attract and sustain women in operational policing remain a problem. This study recommends that a marketing approach should be established to attract more females to operational environments, including the following: career fairs and presentations at schools and institutions of higher learning, word of mouth by creating platforms for women's engagement and dialogue, conducting awareness of careers in SAPS at remote and rural areas. It is also recommended that strategies and policies that are having an influence on women empowerment should be reviewed, developed and implemented to create an environment beneficial to the facilitation of the full development of women eliminating all natures of violence and harassment of women in the workplace. A SAPS' Retention Strategy should be implemented to sustain women in operational policing.
- No evaluation programmes within the SAPS to look at the representation of policewomen within the SAPS – as such it becomes problematic for SAPS management to have a comprehensive knowledge of the problems facing policewomen and to prioritise gender equity or transformation of policewomen within the service.

It is recommended that the SAPS should develop evaluation programmes to evaluate the regulatory frameworks and programmes that promote transformation in the SAPS and support gender sensitivity and women's empowerment to ensure that the issues of gender equity and women's empowerment are addressed. In order to achieve this, SAPS should appoint a committee to monitor all SAPS' appointments on all levels and monitor all intervention mechanisms for gender mainstreaming issues for gender equity and women's empowerment.

Implementing these recommendations will improve the number and growth of women in operational policing and build a gender-balanced organisation and create a fully represented and competent workforce that can achieve the policing needs. It will also build their self-esteem and capacity, as well as improving their inclusion, recruitment and retention in the SAPS. Furthermore, it will reduce defencelessness amongst women and enhance their general capacity regarding service delivery and gender inequalities that were created by the patriarchal society and system.

5.4 CONCLUSION

The findings of this study are of a qualitative nature with the intention of exploring the reasons for under-representation of policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane. Several reasons were discovered to be behind the under-representation of policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane. Conclusions drawn from this study are as follows: equitable representation of women in the operational policing and supervisory positions are still problematic. Moreover, heavy recruitment process and training at police academies accelerate the low number of women in operational policing. After training at the police academies, all recruited police officials are sent to operational policing at various police stations and on arrival. Women do not like to work long hours performed in operational policing. There is no growth for junior members in operational policing especially women. As a result, SAPS is losing experienced female members owing to retirement. The participants in this research were able to provide reasons for the under-representation of women in operational policing at their police stations.

This study concludes that there are no evaluation programmes within the SAPS to look at the representation of policewomen within the SAPS – as such, it becomes difficult for SAPS leadership to have a comprehensive knowledge of the challenges faced by policewomen and to prioritise gender equity or transformation of policewomen within the Service.

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Alpert, G. P., Dunham, R.G. & Stroshine, M. S. 2006. *Policing Continuity and Change*. Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press.
- Amos, I.O. 2016. Factors affecting female police officer's performance in Akure Command, Ondo State, Nigeria. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, Vol 6(3): 42-52.
- Appier, J. 1998. *Policing women: The sexual politics of law enforcement and the Los Angeles Police Department*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Archbold, C.A., Hassell, K.D. & Stichman, A.J. 2010. Comparing promotion aspirations among female and male police officers. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, Vol 12(2): 287-303.
- Archbold, C.A. & Schulz, D.M. 2012. Research on women in policing: A look at the past present and future. *Sociology Compass*, Vol 6(9): 694-706.
- Aremu, A. 2006. *Impact of some demographic variables on job satisfaction of women police in Ibadan, Nigeria*. Department of Guidance & Counselling: University of Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Babbie, E. 2010. *The basics of social research*. 12th edition. Belmont CA: Wadsworth.
- Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. 2010. *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Balkin, J. 1988. Why policemen don't like policewomen. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, Vol 16(1): 29-38.
- Belknap, J. & Shelley, J.K. 1992. The New Lone Ranger: Policewomen on Patrol. *American Journal of Police*, Vol 12(2): 47-75.
- Bell, D. 1982. Policewomen: Myths and Reality. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, Vol 10(1): 112-120.
- Berg, B. L. 1998. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Wadsworth: United States of America.
- Berg, B. L. 1999. *Policing in Modern Society*. Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann.

- Bezuidenhout, C. 2002. Performance of Female Police Officers in a Male Dominated Environment: Replacing myth with reality. *Acta Criminologica: South African Journal of Criminology*, Vol 15(2): 110-118.
- Bezuidenhout, C. A. 2011. *South African Perspective on fundamental criminology*. Cape Town: Heinemann.
- Bezuidenhout, C. & Theron A. 2000. Attitudes of male and female police officers towards the role of female police officers. *Acta Criminologica: South African Journal of Criminology*, Vol 13(3): 19-31.
- Birzer, L. & Roberson, C. 2007. *Policing Today and Tomorrow*. Pearson: Prentice Hall.
- Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C. & Sithole, S. L. 2013. *Fundamentals of social research methods: An African Perspective*. 5th edition. Lansdowne, South Africa: Juta.
- Blum, T.C. Fields, D.L. & Goodman, J.S. (1994). Organization-Level Determinants of Women in Management. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol 37(2): 241-268.
- Brown, J. & Fielding, J. 1993. Qualitative differences and women police officers' experience of occupational stress. *Work and Stress*, Vol 7(4): 327-340.
- Brown, J. & Heidensohn, F. 2000. *Gender and Policing*. London: Macmillan.
- Bryman, A. 2012. *Social research methods*. 4th edition. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Butler, E.K., Winfree, L.T. & Newbold, G. 2003. Policing and Gender: Male and Female perspectives among members of the New Zealand Police. *Police Quarterly*, Vol 6(3): 298-239.
- Chen, R.H. 2015. Women in policing: In relation to female police officers' level of motivation toward the career, level of stress, and attitude of misconduct. Sociological Imagination. *Western's Undergraduate Sociology Student Journal*. The University of Western Ontario, Vol 4(1): 1-16.
- Corsianos, M. 2009. *Policing and gendered justice. Examining the possibilities*. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.
- Creswell, J. W. 2013. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Dantzker, M. L. 1997. *Contemporary Policing: Personnel Issues and Trends*. 6th edition. Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Dantzker, M.L. & Kubin, B. 1998. Job Satisfaction: The Gender Perspective among Police Officers. *American Journal of Criminal Justice. Perspective*, Vol 23(1): 1-31.
- Dean, G. 1995. Police reform: Rethinking operational policing. *Journal of Criminal Justice*. Volume 23(4): 337-347.
- De Jong, C. 2005. Gender Differences in Officer Attitude and Behaviour. *Women & amp: Criminal Justice*, Vol 15(3/4):1-32.
- Dempsey, J.S. & Forst L.S. 2012. *An introduction to Policing*. United States of America: Delmar Cengage Learning.
- Denscombe, M. 2010. *The good research guide: For small scale social research projects*. 4th edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. 2011. *Research at Grass Roots: For the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*. 4th edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- De Vries, I.D. 2008. Strategic issues in the South African Police Service in the first decade of democracy. *Acta Criminologica*, Vol 21(2): 125-138.
- Dick, P. & Jankowicz, D. 2001. A social constructionist account of police culture and its influence on the representation and progression of female officers: A repertory grid analysis in a UK police force. *Policing*, Vol 24(2): 181-199.
- Dick, G.P. & Metcalfe, B.D. 2007. The progress of female police officers? An empirical analysis of organisational commitment and tenure explanations in two UK police forces. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol 20(2): 81-100.
- Dodge, M., Valcore, J.L. & Klinger, D. 2010. Maintaining separate spheres in policing. Women on SWAT teams: *Women and Criminal Justice*, Vol 20(3): 218-238.
- Dowler, K. & Arai, B. 2008. Stress, gender and policing: the impact of perceived gender discrimination on symptoms of stress. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, Vol 10(2): 123-135.

- Eagly, A.H. & Johannesen-Schmidt, M.C. 2001. The leadership style of men and women. *Journal of Social issues*, Vol 57(4): 781-797.
- Ehiemua, S. 2014. Nigeria Police Force: Are females suitable for police duty? *European Journal of Research and Reflection in Arts and Humanities*, Vol 2(2): 18-24.
- Erasmus-Kritzinger., L. Swart, M. & Mona. V. 2000. *Advanced communication skills for organizational success*. Afritech: Pretoria.
- eNCA broadcast. 2015. *Women's Day female officers take on police tactical divisions*. 9 August 2015, 11:16am.
- Feinman, C. 1994. *Women in the Criminal justice system*, 3rd edition. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Felkenes, G.T., Peretz, P. & Schroedel, J.R. 1993. An analysis of the mandatory hiring of females. *Women & Criminal Justice*, Vol 4(2): 31-63.
- Filstead, W.J. 1970. *Qualitative methodology first hand involvement with the social world*. University of California: Markham Publishing Company.
- Fox, W, & Bayat, M. S. 2013. *A Guide to Managing Research*: Lansdowne, South Africa: Juta.
- Franklin, C. A. 2007. Male peer support and the police culture: Understanding the resistance and opposition of women in policing. *Women & Criminal Justice*, Vol 16(3): 1-25.
- Garcia, V. 2003. "Difference" in the Police Departments. Women, Policing and "Doing Gender". *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, Vol 19(3): 330-344.
- Gosset, J.L. & Williams, J.E. 1998. Perceived discrimination among women in law enforcement. *Women in Criminal Justice*, Vol 10(1): 53-73.
- Graue, T.M., Hildie, R.E. & Weatherby, G.A. 2016. Women in Modern Policing. *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, Vol 2(3): 51-62.
- Harrington, P. E., Lonsway, K., Smeal, E. & Spillar, K. 2000. *Equality denied: The status of women in policing*. National Centre for Women and Policing. Washington, DC: Feminist Majority Foundation.

- Heidensohn, F. 1992. *Women in Control? The Role of Women in law Enforcement*. Oxford: Claredon Press.
- Heidensohn, F. 1998. Comparative models of policing and the role of women officers. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, Vol 1(3): 215-226.
- Herbert, S. 1998. Police subculture considered. *Criminology*, Vol 36(2): 343-369.
- Joubert, C. 2013. *Applied Law for Police Officials*. 4th edition. Claremont: Juta
- Kim, B. & Merlo, A.V. 2010. Policing in Korea: Why women choose law enforcement careers. *Journal of ethnicity in Criminal Justice*, Vol 8(1): 1-17.
- Kurtz, D.L., Linnemann, T. & Williams, S.L. 2012. "Reinventing the Matron: The continued importance of gendered images and division of labour in Modern Policing." *Women and Criminal Justice*, Vol 22(3): 239-263.
- Lonsway, K.A. 2001. Policewomen and the use of force. *Law and Order*. Vol 49(7): 109-114.
- Lonsway, K., Wood, M., Fickling, M., De Leon, A., Moore, M., Harrington, P., Smeal, E. & Spillar, K. 2002. Men, women, and police excessive force: A tale of two genders. The National Centre for Women and Policing. Washington, DC: Feminist Majority Foundation.
- Lonsway, K., Moore, M., Harrington, P., Smeal, E. & Spillar, K. 2003. *Hiring and retaining more women: The advantages of law enforcement agencies*. National Centre for Women and Policing. Beverly Hill: California.
- Lunneborg, T. 1989. *Women Police Officers: Current Career Profile*. Springfield: Charles C Thomas.
- Marks, M. 2005. *Transforming robocops: Changing police in South Africa*. University of KwaZulu-Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg.
- Marshall, G. 2013. *Barriers for women in law enforcement*. Athabasca University: Master of Arts-Integrated Studies.
- Martin, S.E. 1990. *On the Move: The Status of Women in Policing*. Washington, DC: The Police Foundation.

- Martin, S.E. 1999. Police force or police service: Gender and emotional labour. *The Annals*, Vol (561): 111-126.
- Martin, S.E. & Jurik, N.C. 2007. *Doing justice, doing gender: Women in Criminal Justice Occupations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Meyer, M. E. & Steyn, J. 2008. Developing cynicism among male and female recruits in the South African Police Service. *Acta Criminologica. CRIMSA Conference Special Edition (2)*.
- Miller, L.S. 1998. Rocking the rank and file: Gender issues and community policing. *Journal of Contemporary Criminal Justice*, Vol 14(2): 156-172.
- Miller, L.S. 1999. *Gender and Community Policing: Walking the Talk*. Boston: Northeastern University Press.
- Montesh, M. 2010. Transformation in the South African Police Service: the implementation of affirmative action and employment equity in the SAPS. *South African Journal in the Criminal Justice*, Vol 23(1):55-77.
- Morash, M. & Green, J. 1986. Evaluating Women on Patrol: A Critique of Contemporary Wisdom. *Evaluation Review*, Vol 10(2): 230-255.
- Morash, M. & Haarr, R.N. 1995. Gender, workplace problems, and stress in policing. *Justice Quarterly*, Vol 12(1): 113-140.
- Morrison, C.J. 2004. *A criminological study of Women in the South African Police Service*. University of South Africa. Pretoria.
- Morrison, C.J. 2005. *A criminological study of Gender Discrimination versus Equality in the Police. Potchefstroom*: Vaal University of Technology.
- Mouton, J. 1996. *Understanding social research*, 1st edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Muhammad, A.S., Abdullah, M. & Lawal, U. M. 2016. Gender Dynamics and Role Performance in the Nigeria Police Force: A study of the Borno State Command. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, Vol 21(12): 26-36.
- Natarajan, M. 2008. *Women Police in a changing society. Back door to equality*. Ashgate: Burlington VT.

- Natarajan, M. 2014. Police culture and the integration of women officers in India. *International Journal of Police Science & Management*, Vol 16(2): 124-139.
- National Research Council. 2004. *Fairness and effectiveness in policing: The evidence*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.
- Newham, G., Masuku, T. & Dlamini, J. 2006. *Diversity and transformation in the South African Police Service: A study of police perspective on race, gender and the community in the Johannesburg policing area*. Pretoria: Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation.
- Nigeria. 1979. Nigeria Police Force Act No 23 of 1979. Lagos: Government Printers.
- Nigeria. 1990. *Regulation Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 1990. (CAP 359)*. Lagos. Government Printers.
- Novak, K.J., Brown, R.A. & Frank, J. 2011. Women on patrol: an analysis of differences in officer arrest behaviour. *An International Journal of Polies Strategies and Management*, Vol 34(4): 1-44
- Omotayo, O.A., Oladele, T.O. & Adenike, A. 2013. Glass-ceiling and female career advancement: A study in Nigeria Police. *Avensha*, Vol 6(1): 49-59.
- O'Reilly, M. & Kiyimba, N. 2015. *Advanced Qualitative Research: A Guide to using theory*. London: Sage Publications.
- Oruta, E.M., Lidava, M.K. & Gaunya, C.R. 2016. Challenges facing female police officers in service delivery in Kenya. *Journal of Resources Development and Management: An international peer reviewed journal*, Vol 25: 1-10.
- Osterlind, M & Haake, U. 2010. The leadership discourse amongst female police leaders in Sweden. *Advancing Women in Leadership Journal*, Vol 30(16): 1-24.
- Paoline, E. A. & Terrill, W. 2005. Women police officers and the use of coercion. *Women & Criminal Justice*. Vol 15(3/4): 97-119.
- Parsons, D. & Jesilow, P. 2001. *In the same voice. Women and men in law enforcement*. Santa Ana. CA: Seven Locks Press.
- Parvin, H. 2017. Gender Mainstreaming in the Police Organisations: Bangladesh Perspective. *Australian Journal of Law, Ethics and Governance*. Vol 3(1): 32-40.

- Prenzler, T. 2008. Women police in changing society: Backdoor to equality. *Asian Criminology*, Vol 6(1): 123-124.
- Prenzler, T. & Hayes, H. 2000. Measuring progress in Gender Equity in Australian Policing. *Current Issues in Criminal Justice*. Vol 12(1): 20-38.
- Prenzler, T. & Sinclair, G. 2013. The status of women police officers: An international review. *International Journal of Law, Crime and Justice*, Vol 4(1): 115-131.
- Price, B.R. 1996. *Female police officers in the United States*. In M. Dagon. *Policing in Central and Eastern Europe: Comparing First hand Knowledge with Experience from the West*. Ljubljana, Slovenia: College of Police and Security Studies.
- Prinsloo, M. & Bradshaw, D. 2010. The experiences of transformation by police officers. Findings from a qualitative study conducted in Cape Town, South Africa. *Acta Criminologica*, Vol 23(1): 84-95.
- Queensland Police Service. 2008. *Service Delivery and Performance Commission*. Queensland Government: Brisbane Qld.
- Rabe-Hemp, C.A. 2007. Survival in an "all boys club": Policewomen and their fight for acceptance. *Policing: An International Journal of Policing Strategies and Management*, Vol 31(2): 251-270.
- Rabe-Hemp, C.A. 2008. Female officers and the ethic of care: Does officer gender impact police behaviour? *Policing: Journal of Criminal Justice*. Vol 36(5): 426-434.
- Rabe-Hemp, C.A. 2009. POLICEwomen or policewomen? Doing Gender and Police Work. *Feminist Criminology*, Vol 4(2): 114-129.
- Rauch, J. 2000. *Police Reform and South Africa's Transition in crime and policing in the transitional societies*. Johannesburg: University of Witwatersrand.
- Reynecke, F. & Fourie, M. 2001. *Police Management Beyond 2000*. Lansdowne: Juta.
- Robinson, S. 2013. Promotional and Non-Stereotypical Policing Roles: Are women opting out. *Salus Journal*, Vol 1(3): 1-12.
- Rolleri, L.A. 2013. *Understanding Gender and Gender Equality*. New York. Engender Health.

- Rycroft, A, 2009. *Transformative failure: the adjudication of affirmative action appointment disputes in Equality in the workplace: reflection of South Africa and beyond*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Sabat, S.N. & Mishra, S. 2010. Role of women in the management of police organisation: A paradigm shift. *International Journal of Learning and Change*, Vol 4(4): 365-377.
- Schuck, M.A. & Rabe-Hemp, C. 2007. Women Police: The use of force by and against female officers. *Women in Criminal Justice*, Vol 16(4): 91-117.
- Schulz, D.M. 1995. *From Social Worker to Crime Fighter. Women in the United States municipal policing*. Westport: CT Praeger.
- Shelley, T.O., Morabito, M.S. & Tobin-Gurley, J. 2011. Gendered institutions and gender roles: Understanding the experiences of women in policing. *Criminal Justice Studies: A Critical Journal of Crime, Law and Society*, Vol 24(4): 351-376.
- Silvestri, M. 2003. *Women in charge. Policing, gender and leadership*. Willan: Devon.
- Sklansky, D. A. 2006. Not your father's police department: Making sense of the new demographics of law enforcement. *The Journal of Criminal law and Criminology*, Vol 96(3): 1209-1244.
- Soonties, W. & Anthony, M. 2015. *Promoting policewomen: A conceptual framework*. Western Australia, Anzam: Chapman Publishing Ltd.
- Sousa, W. & Gauthier, J.F. 2008. Gender diversity in officers' evaluations of police work: A survey of job satisfaction in the workplace. *Justice Policy Journal*, Vol 5(1): 1-24.
- South Africa. 1995. *South African Police Service Act No 68 of 1995*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South Africa. 1996. *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South Africa. 1998. *The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

- South Africa. 1995. *White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service*: Pretoria. Government Printers.
- South African Police Service. 1997. *Affirmative Action Policy Document 1997*. Strategic Management, Head Office, Pretoria.
- South African Police Service. 2001. *Agreement 10/2001*. Promotion of Employment Equity and Elimination of Unfair Discrimination Policy. Strategic Management, Head Office, Pretoria.
- South African Police Service. 2006. *Annual Report 2005/2006*. Commissioner of the SAPS. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South African Police Service. 2010. *SAPS Professional Conduct Learner Guide 2017*. Commissioner of the SAPS. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South African Police Service. 2011. *SAPS Magazine*. Commissioner of the SAPS. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South African Police Service. 2014. *SAPS Magazine*. Commissioner of the SAPS. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South African Police Service. 2015. *SAPS Magazine*. Commissioner of the SAPS. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South African Police Service. 2016. *Annual Report 2015/2016*. Commissioner of the SAPS. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South African Police Service. 2017. *SAPS Professional Conduct Learner Guide 2017*. Commissioner of the SAPS. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- South African Police Service. 2019. *Women Empowerment Agenda 2019/2024*. Strategic Management, Head Office, Pretoria.
- Stevens, P. & Yach, P.M. 1995. *Community policing in action*. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Terreblanche, M. & Durrheim, K. 2002. *Research in practice*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.
- Terreblanche, M. & Durrheim, K. 2006. *Research in practice*. 2nd edition. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

- Tesch, R. 1990. *Qualitative Research; Analysis types and software tools*. Bristol PA: Falmer.
- Timmins, W.M. & Hainsworth, B.E. 1989. Attracting and Retaining Females in Law Enforcement: Sex based problems of women cops in 1988. *International Journal of Offender Therapy Comparative Criminology*, Vol 33(3): 197-205.
- Ulicki, T. 2011. 'Just the way things are': Gender equity and sexual harassment in the South African Police Service. *Article in Transformation Critical Perspective on Southern Africa*, 76(1) 95-119.
- Van Graan, J. 2005. Obstacles impeding the transformation process in the SAPS. Pretoria. University of South Africa.
- Walker, S.G. 1993. *The status of women in Canadian policing*. Ottawa, Canada: Ministry of Solicitor General.
- Warner, R.L., Steel, B.S. & Lovrich, N.P. 1989. Conditions associated with the advent of representative bureaucracy: The case of women in policing. *Social Science Quarterly*, Vol 70(3): 562-578.
- Wells, S.K. & Alt, B.L. 2005. *Policewomen: Life with the Badge*. Westport CT: Praeger.
- Wiid, J. & Diggins, C. 2013. *Marketing research*. 2nd edition. Lansdowne, South Africa: Juta.
- Wilcock, C. 2017. *Moving in the right direction: A study into the extent to which advances in gender equality have affected women in policing*: University of Leicester.
- Wilkinson, V. & Froyland, I. D. 1996. Women in Policing. Australian Institutes in Criminology, *Trends and issues in Crime and Criminal Justice*. Vol 58: 1-6.
- Wimhurst, K. 1995. Anticipating the future: The early experiences and career expectations of women police recruits in Post-Fitzgerald Queensland, *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, Vol 28(3): 278-297.

APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

PARTICIPANT NO: _____

My name is Martha Mapakeng Matsepe, I am a master's degree student at University of South Africa, (Student no: 42972868) currently busy with my research study (The title of my research study is: An exploration of the representation of women in the South African Police operations in Tshwane). I request your permission to answer the questions below and if you agree please sign me the consent form on Appendix B. For any inquiries regarding this study you may send me an email to the following address: matsepemm@gmail.com

INTERVIEW GUIDE QUESTIONS WITH FEMALE POLICE OFFICERS

Personal particulars

Date----- Age----- Gender-----

Rank----- Working experience-----

Questions to the female police officials

1. How many policewomen do you have in non-commissioned and commissioned position in the operational policing within your station?-----

2. In your opinion, why are South African policewomen underrepresented in operational policing? -----

3. What is the importance of the South African Policewomen in operational policing?-----

4. What are the challenges facing policewomen who participate in operational policing in your police station? -----

5. What can the organisation do to attract and sustain policewomen in operational policing in this country?-----

6. Which strategies can improve employment opportunities for and the representation South African policewomen in operational policing? -----

APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Dear prospective participant

RESEARCH TITLE: AN EXPLORATION OF THE REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE OPERATIONS IN TSHWANE

My name is Martha Mapakeng Matsepe and I am doing research with Prof Angel Mabudusha, an Associate professor in the Department of Police Practice towards a master's degree in criminal justice at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in the study entitled: an exploration in the representation of women in the South African Police operations in Tshwane.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

I am conducting this study to explore the reasons for underrepresentation of policewomen in operational policing in Tshwane.

WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO PARTICIPATE?

You have been selected to participate in this study because you meet the selection criteria (i.e. minimum of eight years' service in the SAPS). Your name and surname were obtained from the Provincial Skills Development Facilitator in Gauteng. Therefore twenty (20) policewomen in the following police stations in Tshwane will be requested to participate voluntarily in the study: SAPS Atteridgeville, SAPS Pretoria Central, Sunnyside SAPS and SAPS Pretoria West.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF MY PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?

In this research you will be required to participate in a one-on-one 30 minutes interview session with the researcher whereby she is going to ask you questions based on the above-mentioned topic. The study involves audiotaping of the semi-structured interviews. You will be asked questions such as; how many commissioned and non-commissioned policewomen are in operational policing within your police station, in your opinion, why are the policewomen underrepresented in operational policing, what is the importance of the policewomen in operational policing etc.

CAN I WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY EVEN AFTER I HAVE AGREED TO PARTICIPATE?

Participating in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you decide to take part in the study, you will be given this information sheet to keep with you. You are free to withdraw at any time and without being forced to give a reason for your withdrawal. Your personal particulars will not be written on this sheet. In order to protect your identity, the researcher will use code numbers to identify you, such as Participant 1 or participant 2.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

There will be no incentives or gifts given to the participants. This means you are going to participate voluntarily without the expectation of any monetary reward or material gain.

ARE THERE ANY NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES FOR ME SHOULD I PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH?

This research is a low risk study and the participants will not be subjected to any harm. However, being subjected to an interview may rouse uncomfortable feeling to some participants. Therefore, as the researcher I will explain the aim of this interview to the participants and tell them that the information obtained from them will be used for academic purposes so that they feel comfortable.

WILL THE INFORMATION THAT I CONVEY TO THE RESEARCHER AND MY IDENTITY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

You have a right to ask that your name will not be recorded anywhere and that no one except for the researcher and identified members of the research team, will know about your involvement in this research. Hence the researcher will use numbers instead of names, so that external people are unable to connect you to the answers you have given.

Your answers may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that research is done properly, including the members of the Research ethics Committee. Otherwise, records that identify you will be available only to myself (the researcher and the research supervisor), unless you give permission for other people to see the records. Data that you provide may be used for academic purposes, such as writing a research report, journal articles and/or present it in a conference.

In these publications the researcher will use code numbers to identify your answers instead of your real name. This is to ensure that your privacy and confidentiality is protected.

HOW WILL THE RESEARCHER PROTECT THE SECURITY OF DATA?

Electronic information (from tape recorder) will be stored on a password-protected computer. Future use of the stored data will be subjected to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. After five years electronic copies will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer using a relevant software programme.

WILL I RECEIVE PAYMENT OR INCENTIVE FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

Participation in this study is voluntary and it there will be no payment or reward offered to the participants.

HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICS APPROVAL?

The study has received written approval from the Research ethics committee of the CLAW Ethics Review Committee, Unisa and from the SAPS Strategic Management Division. See copies of these documents on Appendix C, and D.

HOW WILL I BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS/ RESULTS OF TE RESEARCH?

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, or should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study please contact Mrs Martha Matsepe on 083 668 7148 or matsepemm@gmail.com. The findings are accessible after the release of the report.

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research was conducted, you may contact Prof SA Mabudusha at 012 433 9451 or mabudsa@unisa.ac.za. Contact the Research Ethics Chairperson of the College of Law, Prof Doraval Govender on 012 433 9482 or govend1@unisa.ac.za, should you have any ethical concerns.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Signature:

APPENDIX C: SAPS ETHICAL CLEARANCE

<i>South African Police Service</i>			<i>South African Police Service</i>	
Private Bag X94	Pretoria 0001	Faks No.	(012) 393 2128	
Your reference/My verwysing:				
My reference/My verwysing: 3/34/2		THE DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER: RESEARCH SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE PRETORIA 0001		
Enquiries/Navrae:	Lt Col Joubert AC Thenga (012) 393 3118 JoubertG@saps.gov.za			
Tel:				
Email:				

Ms MM Matsepe
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE WOMEN REPRESENTATION IN OPERATIONAL POLICING IN TSHWANE: MASTERS DEGREE: UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA: RESEARCHER: MM MATSEPE

The above subject matter refers.

You are hereby granted approval for your research study on the above mentioned topic in terms of National Instruction 1 of 2006.

Further arrangements regarding the research study may be made with the following office:

The Provincial Commissioner: Gauteng:

- **Contact Person:** Capt Nevumbani
- **Contact Details:** (011) 547 9131

Kindly adhere to paragraph 6 of our Attached letter signed on the **2018-05-30** with the same above reference number.


LIEUTENANT GENERAL
DIVISIONAL COMMISSIONER: RESEARCH
DR BM ZULU

DATE: 2018/06/15

APPENDIX D: UNISA ETHICAL CLEARANCE



UNISA CLAW ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date 20180518

Reference: ST43 of 2018

Applicant: MM Matsepe

Dear Mrs Matsepe

**Decision: ETHICS APPROVAL
FROM 18 MAY 2018
TO 17 MAY 2021**

Researcher(s): Martha Mapakeng Matsepe

Supervisor (s): Dr SA Mabudusha

The South African police women representation in operational policing in Tshwane

Qualification: MA (Police Practice)

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa CLAW Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for 3 years.

*The **low risk application** was reviewed by the CLAW Ethics Review Committee on 18 May 2018 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The decision was ratified by the committee.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the CLAW Committee.
3. The researcher will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of



Open Rubric

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX E: TURNITIN CERTIFICATE

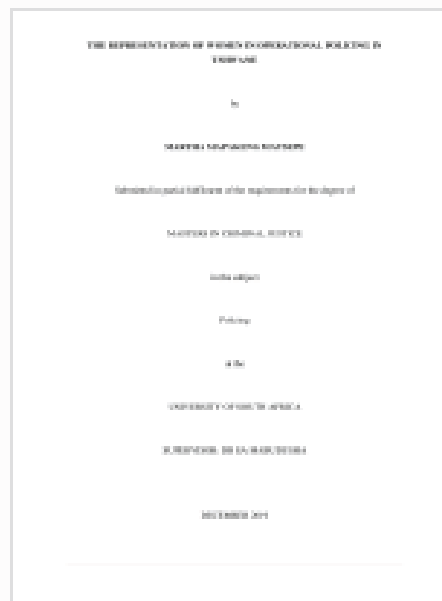


Digital Receipt

This receipt acknowledges that Turnitin received your paper. Below you will find the receipt information regarding your submission.

The first page of your submissions is displayed below.

Submission author: **M M Matsepe**
Assignment title: **Revision 2**
Submission title: **Revision 1 Completed Dissertation**
File name: **Matsepe_Completed_Dissertation_2...**
File size: **281.95K**
Page count: **125**
Word count: **43,142**
Character count: **235,298**
Submission date: **17-Jan-2020 12:38PM (UTC+0200)**
Submission ID: **1243021008**



Copyright 2020 Turnitin. All rights reserved.

APPENDIX F: LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE

7542 Galangal Street

Lotus Gardens

Pretoria

0008

24 December 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This certificate serves to confirm that I have edited and proofread MM Matsepe's dissertation entitled, **"THE REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN OPERATIONAL POLICING IN TSHWANE"**.

I found the work easy and intriguing to read. Much of my editing basically dealt with obstructionist technical aspects of language, which could have otherwise compromised smooth reading as well as the sense of the information being conveyed. I hope that the work will be found to be of an acceptable standard. I am a member of Professional Editors' Guild.

Hereunder are my contact details:



Jack Chokwe (Mr)

Contact numbers: 072 214 5489

jackchokwe@gmail.com

Professional
EDITORS
Guild

Jack Chokwe
Associate Member

Membership number: CHO001
Membership year: March 2019 to February 2020

076 471 6881
012 429 3327
jackchokwe@gmail.com
<http://www.academicproeditor.com>

www.editors.org.za

